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ABSTRACT

The Oral Language Program is a set of instructional materials in English as a second language for children aged five to seven. It is also an instructional system; in addition to 150 lessons for the children, there are pupil assessment devices, teacher training procedures and materials, program evaluation procedures, and installation and monitoring procedures. This report summarizes the progress of the Oral Language Program through the various stages of development. It concentrates on the instructional and assessment components for pupils and teacher training, and reports on program evaluation. Installation procedures are not covered. The three major sections of the report are a comparison between the Oral Language Program and its antecedent, a detailed review of the stages of developmental work on the program since 1967, and a report of the most recently completed field trials of the program, i.e., those conducted in the 1969-70 school year. (Author)

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PROGRESS REPORT
ON THE
ORAL LANGUAGE PROGRAM

by

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INTRODUCTION

The *Oral Language Program* is a set of instructional materials in English as a Second Language for children aged five to seven. It is also an instructional system; in addition to the one hundred fifty lessons for the children, there are pupil assessment devices, teacher training procedures and materials, program evaluation procedures, and installation and monitoring procedures. All these interlocked components have undergone a process of development, that is, they have been designed, tested, and prepared for diffusion.[1]

This report summarizes the progress of the Oral Language Program through the various stages of development. It concentrates on the instructional and assessment components for pupils and teacher training, and reports on program evaluation. Installation procedures are not covered.[2] The three major sections of the report are 1) a comparison of the Oral Language Program's antecedent[3] with the OLP, 2) a detailed review of the stages of SWCEL's developmental work on the program since 1967, and 3) a report of the most recently completed field trials of the program, i.e., those conducted in the 1969-70 school year.

1-2

CHAPTER I

REVIEW OF RATIONALE

The Oral Language Program lessons trace back to the important work done at the University of California at Los Angeles in the mid 1960's that resulted in the ***Guides for Teaching English as a Second Language to Elementary School Pupils.*** This work in turn grew from initiatives by the California State Department of Education in the early 1960's.[4] The ***Guides***, written under the direction of Robert Wilson by Evelyn Bauer, Eddie Hanson, Lois Michael, and Donald Meyer, became known as the H200 materials.[5] These materials have had a vigorous history independent of SWCEL since 1967, culminating in their publication as ***Teaching English Early.***[6] No attempt is made here to detail the creation of the H200 materials, or to trace their lineage since. Rather, aspects of the materials as they were viewed by SWCEL personnel in the Spring of 1967, and that have influenced the direction of the Oral Language Program, are considered.

Assumptions and Design Features

The H200 was a set of lesson guides for conducting instruction in English as a Second Language. It included two years of daily guides divided into Levels I and II, intended especially for first and second grade youngsters. These basic facts about the H200 suggest important features of the "design" of the materials. For example, the following assumptions were represented or implied in its construction:

1) There was a significant number of youngsters in or approaching school who could not speak or understand English well enough to negotiate instruction in English.

2) Explicit instruction in oral language would contribute to acquisition of sufficient English to make successful negotiation of school possible.

3) Such instruction could and should be carried on regularly, frequently, and sustained for a long time, measured in months, if not years.

4) Teachers could conduct systematic instruction in oral English effectively.

5) It was possible and plausible to identify a sequence of instruction in language that might enable more successful learning than some other sequences.

Of course there were other assumptions, some described in the rationale Wilson wrote for the H200,[7] and others discussed below. However, the above assumptions were largely accepted in principle if not in detail in the construction of the Oral Language Program. A discussion of the above list follows.

Assumption Number 1

By accepting *Number 1* (on the need for English to negotiate schools) SWCEL further accepted the continuation of instruction in English only. Yet a powerful surge of interest in bilingual-bicultural education since 1967[8] may lead to the adjustment of the context to non-English speaking children rather than the attempt to match the child to a monolingual instructional system. In 1967, SWCEL took the position that before any such system change could take hold, thousands of youngsters would need direct help in adjusting to the expectation that they use English. More cogently, establishing an ESL program in many schools would force the recognition that standard curricular demands were inappropriate for children who could not understand the instruction.

The acceptance of this assumption also raised the issue of the longevity of the need for an ESL program on the elementary level. Two factors are pertinent: 1) the increase in early childhood or preschool programs, and 2) the expansion of English into areas of the United States where it had not been prevalent even one generation ago. Television, highways, airplanes, transistor radios, and migrations have contributed to the latter trends.

Again, SWCEL considered the immediate need great enough to justify the program, especially in the less populated Southwestern areas. The limited life-span of an ESL program has been acknowledged; at the same time it is difficult to assess the life span accurately, lacking solid information on language maintenance and predictions of immigration and *zeitgeist* changes.

Assumptions Number 2 and 3

The second assumption (on explicit instruction in English and successful negotiation of school) and ***the third*** (on the span of instruction) ask: "How much is enough?" For H200, two years was the most practical answer. However, ***enough*** has never been well determined, and perhaps never will be. Descriptions of populations, contexts, and objectives need to be supplied, as does longitudinal data. A program developer makes a calculated guess. Before making this guess, the developer must assess not only the outcome – its significance and durability – but also the cost and the probability of constructing a worthwhile program with the resources available. Further, the developer must weigh the necessity to construct not merely lessons, but also a system that can be delivered to the client, i.e., training, assessment, installation.

SWCEL developed only one year's worth of lessons. Important to the calculated guess made at SWCEL was the concept "successful first year experience."[9] SWCEL felt that a positive encounter with initial schooling was valuable enough for its secondary effects that it would offset the risk that English language acquisition would be inadequate or fleeting, and failure would come later. These secondary effects included an increase in confidence and interest on the pupil's part, and a more optimistic expectation on the teacher's part. In any case, SWCEL decided that resources for a complete and adequate one year program were available, and that a one year program was worth doing.

Other serious problems needed to be considered before answering the question of how much is enough: How fast do children aged five to seven learn to speak a new language under the conditions prevalent in the Southwest? Is a point reached in language learning where further independent acquisition can be sustained by continued exposure, not necessarily by instruction? Would pupils in the extreme case (who start with zero English, do not move in Anglo culture, and are very young) demand a much slower pace than other groups?

Differences in the tactical responses of H200 and of OLP to these questions were more ones of degree than of philosophy. Developers of both programs expected a point at which independent acquisition could take hold, but differed on when that might occur. Developers of neither program wished to lock pupils into a given pace, but they differed on how quickly the least prepared students might move. H200 was "later" on the first point and "faster" on the second.

H200 was designed to begin with a learner who could speak approximately zero English and impart English speaking proficiency. In 1967, there were no explicit provisions in the program for pupils to enter at different levels, or to branch to different tracks. These design features identified the program as one which provided prerequisite English language proficiency to youngsters who otherwise would be denied access to a curriculum presented in English, i.e., to utter beginners. This identification did not mean that the program's producers foresaw no other usefulness for the program; rather, it meant that whatever else the program could do, it had to do that.

The problem of teaching beginners can best be illustrated by analogy to situations where the major language of instruction is Spanish or Arabic, for example, and English is taught as a foreign language. Presumably everyone begins at zero English. In parts of the United States with heavy and recent immigration of speakers of languages other than English – Southern California or Texas with many Mexican immigrants – the situation is similar. Other situations also produce beginners ***with respect to English***, e.g., parts of the Navajo reservation.

However, in much of the Southwest, youngsters who are candidates for instruction in English as a Second Language are not utter beginners in English so much as they are marginal speakers of English. In an urban center like Albuquerque, for example, it takes some effort to find ten children who meet a rigorous definition of "non-speaker of English"; yet reasonable school people will argue that their first grade pupils are ESL candidates. Pressed, the teachers explain that the pupils have too little English to learn to read successfully.

"A language basis adequate for learning to read" raises issues of language development that go beyond a narrow construction of speaking and listening proficiency, i.e., the kind of construction to which a second language orientation leads, perhaps inevitably. In any case, the H200 appeared to have that paramount orientation and that narrow focus on speaking and understanding. (Nothing pejorative is intended by the term ***narrow*** here; on the contrary, the program avoided being all things to all people, and tried to do a defined task well.) There were no specifically written stimuli produced or read by pupils in the course of H200 Guides Level I.

For youngsters whose entering level of proficiency in English is greater than zero, the H200 would probably be less and less adequate or appropriate as that proficiency was greater, at least if the youngsters began at Lesson 1. In adopting the features of "must be applicable with utter beginners," "only one entry point," and "linear sequence," OLP took on the same limitations as H200. These limitations have their merits and demerits; however, the effectiveness of the Oral Language Program should be judged primarily within this set of limits. Information from recent field activities that bears on this aspect of the program is presented in Chapter III.

A different group of problems raised by the second and third assumptions has been foreshadowed; it may be that even to embark on language instruction is misguided – that children are efficient language learners when favorable circumstances are created, but productive language is not "installed" in them by teaching. This excellent possibility has been the subject of a great intellectual metamorphosis involving linguistics and other fields. Both H200 and OLP designers admitted that an effective language instructor was possible; it was one who most aptly created the favorable circumstances. Further, the behaviors required for the program's presentation ***provided*** most of the favorable circumstances. Nevertheless, both programs retain a large measure of the premise that active intervention by a teacher will effect language acquisition.

Assumption Number 4

The importance of ***the fourth assumption*** (that teachers could conduct ESL instruction effectively) is in the need for program developers to judge the entering behavior as well as attitudes of prospective teachers. The H200 reflected the viewpoint that ESL instructional competence could be achieved without the teachers becoming ESL specialists; yet, they would need training in the use of the program. H200 and OLP differ with respect to their assessment of teachers' technical preparation to teach ESL. The design of individual lessons reflects the assessments as does SWCEL's teacher-training program for OLP. In general, H200 seemed to expect a better prepared teacher with some acquaintance with ESL as a field. Since H200 contained no lesson guide material to be delivered in any language besides English, the program apparently was intended for use by monolingual English speaking teachers. To design for this condition of use, however, does not mean to ***restrict*** the program to this condition. Nevertheless, this condition of use (by monolinguals) is an important constraint on design; it tends to make the earliest lessons very simple, dramatic and active, and confined to a small "amount of language."* In other words, effort has to be spent to get meaning across that might be spent in imparting more language structure, i.e., because translation as an aid is unavailable.

On translation itself, H200 (and OLP too) avoided reliance on translation; the pupil should be required to ***use*** the new language. If more than minimal translations are supplied, there is no true requirement to use the new language. Of course this design assumption tended to enhance the probability of the program's successful utilization with pupils from a variety of language backgrounds. However, neither H200 nor OLP expected that acquisition of English demanded the banishment of another language, or that translation was never appropriate or helpful.

To the degree that monolingual English speaking teachers are prevalent among those who teach the youngsters for whom H200 was designed, the design constraint of "usable by (English) monolinguals" was a wise one to accept. In its experiences with OLP, SWCEL has found such teachers to be prevalent, though by no means universal (see page 76). The OLP did follow the same guideline with respect to teacher competency, i.e., assumed a monolingual English speaker would have to be able to teach the lessons.

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*However, the motivation for simplicity of the early H200 lessons was to persuade the students that the learning task was one of gaining insight into a system rather than memorizing lists, according to Robert Wilson in a personal memo to the first author.

Assumption Number 5

The remaining ***assumption, the fifth*** (that a sequence for presenting English could be identified) is a problematic as well as a productive one. For both H200 and OLP, it is probably the single assumption that is most characteristic of the program. While both H200 and OLP have been labeled "structured," what they are is "sequenced." Little evidence has been collected on the relative effectiveness of proposed ***alternative*** sequences, except at the microscopic level of within-lesson sequencing (see page 32). Rather, the sequence that Robert Wilson specified[10] was treated as unimprovable with knowledge available at that time, theoretically as elegant as any, and based on solid experience. In short, the sequence with which syntactic "content" was presented in H200 mainly is unchanged in OLP. The sequence seemed outstanding; it combined awareness of behavioral requirements of language learning by children (e.g., the need to have something to say, to quickly be able to ***ask***), with a progression from easy to difficult that could be explicated in terms of generative grammer.

This sequence reflected another important influence: an application of contrastive study of Spanish and English. For example, H200 opened with "I want an apple" and "What do you want?" instead of the conventional "This is an apple," in an attempt to avoid problems with concordance rules across the verb ***to be*** that compete in English and Spanish.

The import of this contrastive element is that H200 was designed ***primarily*** with Spanish speaking children in mind. Since the program originated in California, this design is not surprising. Even considering the entire United States, the largest single language community for which ESL might be relevant is Spanish speaking.[11]

This assumption proved critical for three issues: 1) the applicability of the sequence, or the program generally, to non-English speakers other than Spanish speakers, especially American Indians, 2) the applicability of the program with speakers of nonstandard dialects of English, and 3) the degree of importance assignable to a contrastive approach to language learning. These three issues can be explored together. Since a Spanish-English contrastive analysis demonstrably influenced the design, especially the syntactic and phonological content and sequencing, utilization with Spanish speakers would be anticipated. However, almost since its writing H200 has been utilized with speakers of languages besides Spanish, ***viz***, among Navajos at Rough Rock demonstration school.[12] On the other hand, doubtless the great bulk of users of H200 have been speakers of Spanish in California and Texas. An earlier paper on the diffusion of H200 and its descendents stated: ". . . the principles of contrastive analysis have not constituted a paramount constraint upon action by the various developers."[13]

In any case, from the start of SWCEL's efforts, the utility of the program with speakers of a variety of languages was accepted. The rationale for this belief contained three elements: the inadequacy of contrastive-analysis precepts for describing very young language learners; the overlap of predictions based on contrastive analyses of different languages; and the negligible contribution of differences in contrastive grammars to the sea of variability involved in teaching an elementary ESL program. A recent paper by Richards based on work with adults narrows the validity of the interpretation of overlapping predictions.[14] Richards' point is that faulty generalizations that are almost unavoidable for a learner arise because of English structure alone, and account for errors made while learning the language.[15]

Influences of applying an H200-like sequence with speakers of American Indian languages are described more fully below. Both OLP and H200, however, have been used with American Indian youngsters. In some settings, Indian pupils have had some of the lowest entry levels recorded, and have exited the program with substantial gains but low absolute scores. Other Indian pupils have exhibited little need for the program. Scores of Spanish speaking pupils have been recorded at the same extremes. SWCEL has no data on differential effects of the program among Spanish speaking and Indian groups that will separate the contribution of strictly linguistic structural factors from the contribution of other factors such as age, location, and socioeconomic status.

The H200 designers probably did not intend the program to be used for instruction in standard English as a second dialect: likewise, the design reflected no shaping by such an objective. Neither has the possibility of using OLP with black pupils, who speak non-standard dialects for example, affected the content of the program.

Small Groups
Aside from the five assumptions discussed above, another important design feature of the H200 was the selection of a small group instructional format.* Applying the small group mode to ESL instruction could

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*H200 originally was designed as a "pull-out" program in which eight children needing language instruction were taught outside their classroom.

pre-empt the format and time that were commonly assigned to the teaching of reading – often inappropriately when the children did not speak well enough the language they were to read. In other words, the teaching of speaking and listening could be accorded the stature and attention of a curriculum element equivalent to reading. (Further, the addition of a considerable span of small group activity to a conventional classroom might act as an irritant toward further change, such as a reorganization of instruction whereby the abilities and time of the "other" children – those outside the teacher-led group – were used more wisely than just for uniform, unproductive seatwork.)

Beyond its effects on classroom practice, the choice of small group format follows from a premise that the format supports language learning by young children. This choice, and the premise, were preserved in the Oral Language Program. In other words, the small group was considered paramount among the favorable circumstances that the H200 (and OLP) would provide for language learners. Alternative formats are possible: instruction could be given to the whole class at once to save the time that repeating lessons for small groups takes. At least one teacher in SWCEL's experience has tried this. While teacher and pupils both appeared to benefit, the adaptations were fundamental enough to represent a totally new program, i.e., one with a different set of assumptions and design features. On the other hand, it could be argued that a one-to-one pupil-teacher ratio is most powerful; a set of ESL procedures for children could be specified on that premise.

While the small group format may not need defense, its presumed advantages for language learning are worth reviewing. For one, the ratio of pupils to teacher is reduced from the ratio of twenty or thirty to one that invites anonymity and may discourage speaking. With a smaller audience, children may be less awed and more likely to speak. This effect is powerful; modifications of speech performance probably cannot occur in the absence of speech. Furthermore, if the children do not speak, the teacher cannot assess them adequately as speakers, and cannot play the role of the supportive, encouraging, and correcting audience. In a small group, more opportunities for each child to respond in a given time period, and more changes to be listened to and receive corrective feedback are possible than in a large group. In effect the small group provides many opportunities, if fleeting ones, for individual instruction.

On the other hand, the small group enables the children to play the roles of speakers to, and audiences for, other children, impossible in the one-to-one teacher-pupil format. It thus becomes possible for a miniature language community to function. The pupil not only affects the teacher, but also expands his effectiveness until several peers also can be influenced by what he says. This broadening range is comparable in principle with the infant's first affecting only his mother via speech, later being understood by a larger audience outside the immediate family. This potential of the miniature language community was not explicit in the rationale for the H200, but it was present in the design, and was carried into OLP and there given increasing emphasis.

In H200, ten was chosen as the group size. There did not appear to be an elaborate social psychological rationale underlying this choice: rather, the necessity of having a number in mind for purposes of writing the *Guides*, and the arithmetic implications for teachers (how *many* groups in a room, how many different lessons in a day) seemed to influence the choice. In OLP, ten in a group was retained for design purposes, although having that number in an actual group in a classroom was not considered vital to the success of the program. Over the course of several years' field trials, however, ten came to be perceived as the *maximum* number that could be in a group if it were to preserve the advantages of a small group. In general, SWCEL's experience confirms the advice, "the lower the age, the smaller the group."

Of course, it is possible for a teacher to initiate ESL instruction with a small group of children and for the advantages of such a format to be lost. Regimentation and discouragement of speaking can operate in a small group; children's responses can be ignored and their spontaneity stifled. The design feature "small group" potentiates but does not guarantee effective instruction. If the wrong children are in the group (those who do not need the program) or if the teacher transmits boredom or hostility, failure is likely. That is one reason why teacher training and assessment procedures are necessary for a complete instructional system.

Orchestrating Models

An occupation with orchestrating model and echo sequences in groups can be demonstrated for H200. For example, a symbol printed on the *Guide* indicated to the teacher when the group should echo an utterance, suggested three repetitions, or suggested group followed by individual echo, or whole-group then half-group echo, and the like. These printed indications were reminiscent of methods in English as a Second Language formerly used with classes of adult learners (e.g., college students from foreign countries). Group, then partial group, then individual repeat were standard audio-lingual practices.[16] The idea that children prefer to echo along with a group before echoing individually – that the group shelters them – was mentioned in the Rationale. This point implied an accomodation of such standard techniques to some particular needs of young children. The *Guides* went beyond merely echoic responses; they advocated activities for children in the small group that would not have been used with adults, e.g., dialogue presentation by puppets. Yet the above traces of an adult classroom oriented English as a Second Language approach persisted in the ***Guides***. Echoing of model utterances by learners does have a place in language acquisition, though the circumstances under which it should take place can be debated. In the development of OLP, handling of modeling and model-echo episodes changed progressively away from the kind of orchestration just described (see below, pp. 45).

Directions for modeling and echoing in the H200 ***Guides*** demonstrated a concern for the presentation by the teacher, and an expectation that the child would echo, answer, or ask. Application of a three term behavior contingency model (stimulus-response-consequence) shows that the stimulus (teacher's or child's model, question) and the response (child's echo, answer) were outlined in detail, but the consequences or maintainers of behavior received much less attention. For example, teacher approval and the use of utterances in the larger school environment ("community approval") were expected to provide motivation to students.[17] However, there were no instructions to teachers on how and when approval should be demonstrated, nor did the ***Guides*** contain advice on setting up the conditions for larger school community approval. SWCEL's attempts to provide consequences are described in Chapter II, page 45.

The latter problem of providing community approval beyond the small group remained largely but not entirely unattacked in the development of OLP lessons (see above page 10). In other words, such larger community approval could not be demonstrated to be a design feature in fact of H200 or of OLP.

Realia

The H200 Guides included the use of realia – objects, toys – to help children in their language learning task.[18] The assumption was that children would be more likely to speak given something to speak about.

A special case of realia was the use of puppets. In H200 ***Guides,*** dialogues were presented by means of puppets. For example, the teacher manipulated two puppets and voiced the "conversation" between them. The toys were supposed to prompt speech, i.e., as part of the speech-evoking stimulus conditions. Pupils were expected to speak about concrete objects early in the program, and about pictures later on.[19] The use of realia interacted as a design feature with the small group format: teacher and pupils must emit much behavior when giving, taking, holding, seeking, collecting the objects. Some of this behaivor – whether on teachers' or pupils' part – might appear to compete with the objectives: teacher is putting a toy aside and misses a pupil's response, child is engrossed with a toy and misses an important episode. Play with the toys could become a management problem.

On the other hand, if speaking is conceived as a behavior that occurs not only in context with other behavior, but also that guides other behavior,*[20] then the presence of realia and the give-and-take of handling them contribute vitally to those objectives concerned with language taking on meaning from the situation in which it is used.

In the OLP, this design feature (realia, or objects and pictures, present) was preserved. The only important change in direction can be described with the three-term contingency: OLP emphasized the roles the realia and handling them played as ***consequences*** for spoken and other responses in addition to their roles as prompts or antecedents. Specific adaptations that pertain to realia in the lessons are described below (see page 43).

Explicitness of Instructions

The H200 *Guides* were just that, daily guides but not lesson plans. The distinction between *Guides* and lesson plans is elusive; in practice it becomes a matter of degree of step-by-step explicitness. Formulating *Guides* appeared to be an attempt to leave the minute-to-minute unfolding of events within a daily session as spontaneous as possible. Thus the *Guides* suggested a sequence of activities for a session thirty minutes long. The sequence from activity to activity (from review to new material, or from new material to post-test) was prescribed. Within-activities sequencing, however, was sketched or suggested only.

Each day's sequence was divided into instructions to the teacher and comments upon the instructions, or "meta-instructions." The commentary explicated rationale for a particular activity, sometimes using linguistic technical terms or symbols, or gave teaching hints. (See Appendix A.) This format indicated that the developers felt the teacher was capable of and interested in improvising or expanding upon the ongoing language instruction, given rationale and hints. The Oral Language Program departed from this format to move toward explicit step-by-step lesson plans, for reasons stemming from different assumptions about teachers and judgments about the practical immediate effects on a teacher before and during lessons, and not from a philosophical dispute with the advantages in language learning of leaving the moments to unfold.

Components

In 1967, the H200 that became available to SWCEL and which was in the public domain at the time, consisted basically of the daily *Guides* for Level

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*In senses explored by Malinowski, for example, in ***Language and the Magic of Gardening***[20] and other authors.

I, cultural lessons to accompany those guides, a written rationale for the program, and an introductory manual for teachers. Over the next several months, Level II *Guides* and a summary of the syntactic sequence and of the phonological sequence became available as well.* In the next few paragraphs, those of the above mentioned components that have had essentially no history within OLP are described briefly and contrasted with certain OLP components.

The H200 cultural lessons were based on themes from Anglo American culture, on the premise that a growing acquaintance with English-speakers' culture should be part of a growing knowledge of that language. Thus, there were cultural lessons on George Washington's birthday, Thanksgiving, and the like. While the developers of OLP did not dispute that premise, they assigned higher priority to making the program relevant to the local and ethnic backgrounds of the various populations that might receive it. One linguistic aspect of that emphasis was that children could learn an important principle of speaking in general, i.e., English or any other language can be used to speak about any topic, including topics that the pupils may already speak about in their first language. The ultimate outcome of this approach was a set of Cultural Heritage Review Units in OLP. (These are described below, p. 48). Thus, the H200 cultural lessons (on Anglo culture) have had no counterpart in the Oral Language Program.

The introductory manual with H200 explained the reason the program existed, the functions of various parts of the individual daily *Guides* and the *Guides'* use. Other than this manual, there were no explicit or exportable training procedures accompanying H200. In connection with OLP lessons, an elaborate and exportable training system was designed before the summer of 1968, and has undergone important revision and expansion since (see below, p. 49). The teachers' manual for OLP[21] was planned as a component of this training system; although it partly corresponds functionally to the H200 introductory manual, it is not derived from it.

There is no part of OLP that corresponds to the Level II *Guides* of the H200 program; there is no "second year" of OLP. As suggested earlier (see p. 5), the restriction of efforts to a "one year" program was based on an assessment of resources available for the development of a system. The one hundred-fifty OLP Lessons correspond roughly to two thirds of the H200 Level I *Guides*. One can speak of the "distance" (the portion of H200 syntactic content) that could be covered in lessons designed to continue one school year (if one lesson were taught per day). That distance was shaped by preliminary efforts at testing the program, i.e., was a "content" decision as contrasted with a resources decision confining the program to a one year scope. However, the "one year" OLP was made the core of a three year ESL program in Ecuador; the distance was divided roughly into thirds. Also, many teachers of OLP, teaching approximately every day, have taken some or all their students through fifty or one hundred lessons or so in one school year; such a rate is entirely consistent with the design of the program.

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*The complete H200 Guides I and II were submitted to the Bureau of Research, U.S. Office of Education in February 1968.

The restriction of OLP to a one year scope (if one complete lesson per day were taught, all the lessons would take one school year) had at least one effect on the substance (as opposed to the size) of the program. Level II of H200 represented an attempt to expand upon the language episodes of Level I along a dimension of complexity of verbal interaction. Level I contains mainly episodes of the type A talks, B replies (or B, then A), with at most two such sequences occurring together (A then B, B then A; or, A then B, then C then A).*[22] Level II contained episodes of more varied and complex types. Since OLP was roughly the counterpart of H200 Level I, the type of expansion of speaking episodes just mentioned was not taken up in OLP and the assumptions represented by it – however interesting and promising – were not represented in the design of OLP.

Within Level I of H200, every day's guide had a statement of objectives, a presentation of new material, and a post test. Additionally, there were special guides interspersed throughout that were devoted to review of previously presented material. The OLP has features which correspond closely in concept though very little in detail to the above items (see below, Appendix B). Two of the more important assumptions reflected in these features include 1) it was possible to recognize in pupils' behavior (or "performance") evidence that language acquisition was taking place, and 2) opportunities for pupils to re-encounter partly familiar material would enhance the probability of acquisition. A corollary assumption was that teachers could make use of stated objectives and of post tests to direct their instructional efforts.

The contrasting ideas of competence and performance that keep recurring in the history of linguistics[23] raise interest about the first assumption. Briefly, competence, or the knowledge speakers seem to have about their language that enables them to say and understand brand new utterances is distinguished from performance, or the actual saying or understanding something at any given time. Without attempting to recapitulate the argument here in miniature, it may be said that for both H200 and OLP the developers constructing the language instructional programs were concerned primarily with performance. One of the fascinations of H200 was that it attempted to extrapolate from theories of linguistic competence to practical situations in the performance arena. While competence was a part of the rationale for the H200,[24] the attempt to arrange circumstances for presenting and eliciting utterances tied the program inevitably and firmly to performance.

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*This is like the action-reaction concept of speaking regretted by Birdwhistell.[22]

The H200 lesson post tests provided behavioral examples from which the teacher was to judge whether or not English competence was expanding. In OLP the issue of competence or performance was not joined. Rather, decisions that affected the shape of OLP lessons were based on such performance parameters as length of lesson, opportunities to respond, ways to assess mastery and others that may be described as engineering problems. For example, that OLP has no lesson post tests stemmed not from a disavowal of the significance of competence, but from judgments about the probability that teachers and pupils could negotiate those tests productively. There is in OLP a set of "criterion lessons" whose relation to the arguments just described is quite similar to that of the lesson post tests and reviews of H200 (see below, p. 46).

Two major topics were treated in H200 ***Guides***, syntax and phonology; the sequence of presentation consisted of two separate sub-sequences that ran the length of the program. While H200 and OLP both had a sequence of daily pronunciation activities with corresponding functions within the larger daily lessons, the pronunciation activities were independently constructed. The relation of syntactic phenomena to phonological ones is complex, and diverse languages provide a range of specific manifestations of this relation. That two separate tracks were constructed for sentence making and for sound making in H200 may have reflected a belief that the sound system of a language could be described separately from other aspects of the language, at least for some purposes. Correspondingly, some skills pertaining to the sound system and needed for communication could be acquired in abstraction from other kinds of skills.

Separate tracks are possible under different conditions. The phonological (or pronunciation) activities for each given day can be connected with or supportive of the other activities for that day. The tracks can be related over blocks of lessons, but not lesson by lesson. Or, the two tracks can be virtually unrelated.

For both H200 and OLP, a middle ground between these possibilities was selected. Only occasionally was there a specific connection between a single pronunciation activity and the rest of the activities of the same lesson. The degree of relationship between tracks differed from the two programs, since in OLP an entirely new pronunciation track was written.

In both cases, however, the syntactic track was viewed as primary and fixed, and changes toward greater or lesser connection between syntax and pronunciation had to be made by operating upon the latter.

In general, the pronunciation activities in H200 were organized to present cumulative data from which generalizations about the English phonological system could be reached. The OLP pronunciation activities emphasized acquiring articulatory control over English sound segments and sequences, including allophonic phenomena that contribute to authentic "accent" (see page 31).

In summary, several components of H200 are not represented in OLP, or are represented by newly built components, sometimes with altered functions. The outstanding component for which an analogous OLP component can be identified is a sequence of instructional activities devoted to teaching children to make sentences in English.

FOOTNOTES

1. Contractors' Request for Continued Funding (Albuquerque: Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, 1970), pp. 1-5.

2. Ibid.

3. Robert Wilson, with Evelyn Bauer, Eddie Hanson, Jr., Donald Meyer, and Lois Michael, *Guide for Teaching English As A Second Language to Elementary School Pupils:* Curriculum development. Level I, *Teaching English Early.* Project H200 (OE 6-10-044), Contract No. 2753, for Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, California State Department of Education, and Bureau of Research, U.S. Office of Education. (Los Angeles: University of California at Los Angeles, 1967, mimeo.).

4. Afton Dill Nance, *Guides for Teaching English as a Second Language to Elementary School Pupils* (Los Angeles: California State Department of Education, 1967, mimeo.).

5. Wilson, et. al. *Guides.*

6. *Teaching English Early* (Dallas: Melton Book Co., 1970).

7. Robert Wilson, *Rationale of California Project Materials* (Los Angeles: University of California at Los Angeles, 1966, mimeograph).

8. *Hearings before the Special Subcommittee on Bilingual Education of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, U.S. Senate on S. 428* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 2 vols., 1967).

   and

   Theodore Anderson and Mildred Boyer, *Bilingual Schooling in the United States* (Austin: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 2 vols., 1970).

9. Concept Brief resulting from Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory staff meeting held July 5-6, 1967.

10. *Teaching English Early, Sequence of Syntactic Structures, Levels I and II* (Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1968, mimeo.).

11. *Hearings before the Special Subcommittee*, p. 35.

12. Virginia Hoffman, *Oral English at Rough Rock* (Rough Rock, Arizona: mimeographed paper, 1967).

13. Robert T. Reeback, *The Developmental Adventures of an Oral Language Program,* (Chicago: paper presented to TESOL, 1969).

14. Jack C. Richards, *A Non-Contrastive Approach to Error Analysis* (International Center for Research on Bilingualism, Paper prepared for TESOL Convention, 1970).

15. See also Ronald Wardhaugh, "The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis" *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 4, 1970, pp. 123-130.

16. See Robert Lado, *Language Teaching, A Scientific Approach*, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1964.

17. Wilson, *Rationale*, p. 4.

18. Ibid.

19. Ibid., p. 3.

20. Bronislaw Malinowski, *Coral Gardens and Their Magic. A Study of the Methods of Tilling the Soil and of Agricultural Rules in the Trobriand Island*, Vol. II *The Language of Magic and Gardening* (New York: American; London: Allen and Unwin, 1935) Parts 4 and 6.

21. Robert T. Reeback, *A Teacher's Manual to Accompany the Oral Language Program*, 3rd ed. (Albuquerque: Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, 1970).

22. Ray L. Birdwhistell, *The Frames in the Communication Process* (Mimeo, 1959) p. 2-4.

23. Noam Chomsky, *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (Cambridge, Massachusetts: The MIT Press, 1965) pp. 3-15.

24. Wilson, *Rationale*, p. 1.

CHAPTER II
HISTORICAL RESUME OF DEVELOPMENT

Following is a summary of the developmental history of the Oral Language Program from 1967 through 1970. The stages in the process of development have been identified retrospectively; the model postdates the product. The stages will be labeled according to SWCEL's model of educational development: design, design-test, field trial A and B, and diffusion.[1] These stages are not discussed here, except as they become relevant to the developmental progress of the OLP. The chronology of developmental activities is given, accompanied by a component-by-component resume of accomplishment during successive activities.

Chronological Summary

Between July 1967 and October 1970, the Oral Language Program moved from the Design stage to Field Trial B stage. (The results of field trial activities during the 1969-70 school year are summarized in Chapter III.) The movement through developmental stages has not been entirely linear; recycling has occurred, stages have been skipped, and components have moved at different rates. All work on H200 prior to July 1967 constituted Design; the product now called OLP then underwent various Design Tests and redesigns until about September 1969, when a combination Design Test and Field Trial A was initiated.* In the 1970-71 school year Field Trial B was conducted: the product (Mark III OLP) design was considered fixed, ultimate market conditions prevailed, and third party (independent of the producer) installation occurred. The Oral Language Program is expected to enter Diffusion (dissemination and adoption independent of SWCEL) by the end of 1971. Thus SWCEL's efforts on OLP will have comprised about four and one half years.

Successive phases, or versions of the OLP product, can be identified to date; however, these should not be equated with the developmental stages listed above. A phase is given the name of a revision of the product; a developmental stage is given the name of a condition of the product. The "H200" phase extended through the Spring of 1967. Next came a phase of "neither fish (H200) nor fowl (OLP)," lasting until the end of 1967, and overlapping the next phase, called "Proto Mark I OLP" which extended through the spring of 1968. The following three phases, Mark I OLP, Proto Mark II OLP, and Mark II OLP extended through the 1968-69 school year, the spring and summer of 1969, and the 1969-70 school year, respectively. These "phases" are related to developmental stages and to the locations and times where development took place in Table 1.

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*Mark II OLP in Design Test; Mark I OLP in Field Trial. See Figure 1.

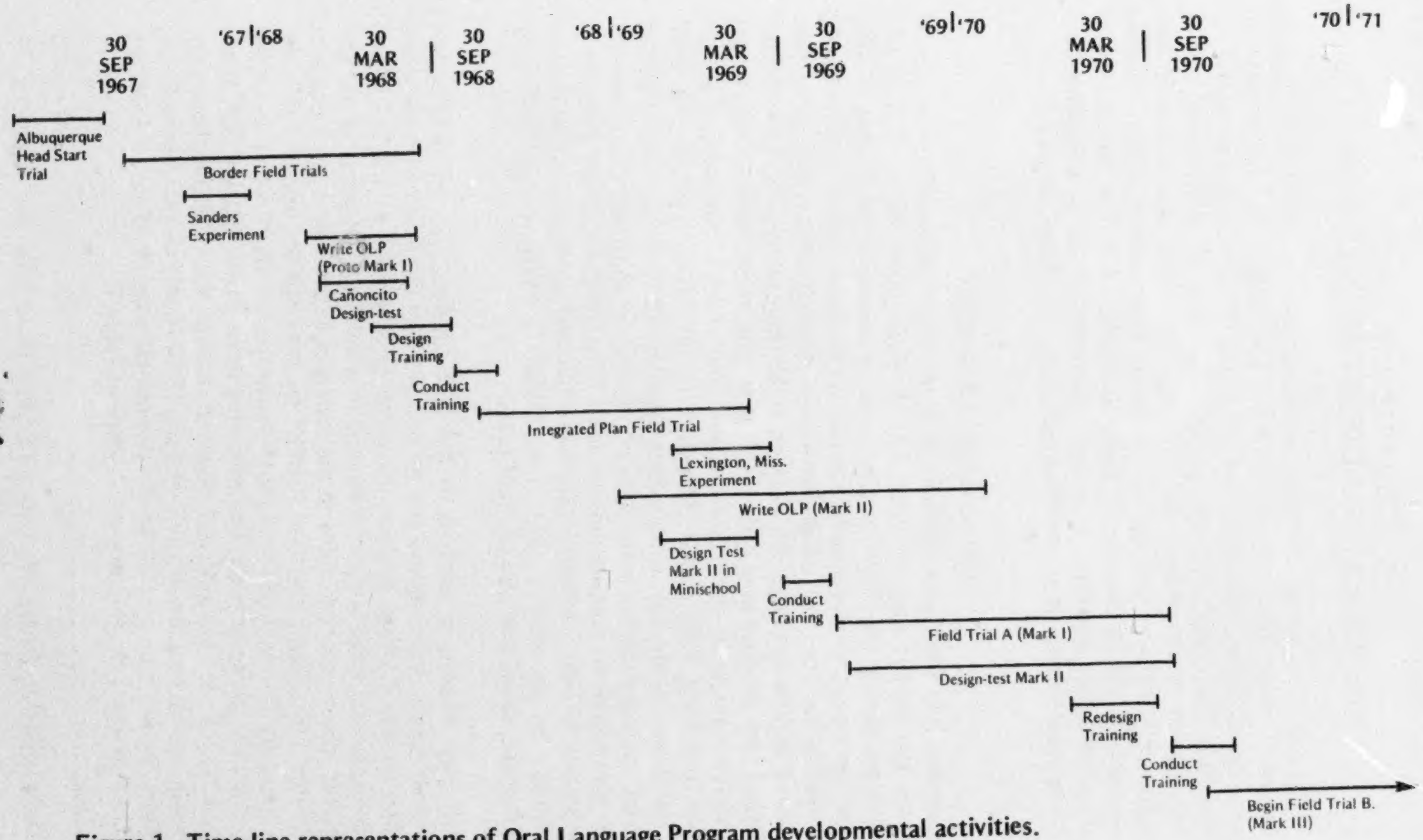

Figure 1. Time line representations of Oral Language Program developmental activities.

PRODUCT PHASE	DEVELOPMENTAL STAGE	SITE	CALENDAR
H-200	Design Design-test	UCLA and Southern California	Before 1967
Neither fish nor fowl	Design-test	Albuquerque Head Start "Border" sites: Smyer, Texas; Douglas, Arizona; El Paso, Texas; San Miguel, New Mexico Sanders, Arizona	Summer 1967 1967-68 School year
Proto-Mark I OLP	Design Design-test (Design-training Design-test training)	Cañoncito Day School	Fall, 1967 Spring, 1968 Winter, Spring 1968 (Spring 1968 Summer 1968)
Mark I	Field Trial A	"Integrated Plan" sites: Tempe, Arizona; Odessa, Texas; Bernalillo, New Mexico; Tulsa, Oklahoma; Navajo Reservation	1968-69 School year
		Lexington, Mississippi	Winter, Spring 1969
Proto-Mark II OLP	Design Design-test	SWCEL SWCEL "mini-school"	Spring 1969
Mark II	Design-test	Odessa, Texas; Bernalillo, New Mexico	1969-70 School year
	Field Trial A (Mark I OLP) (Design training; Design-test training)	Twenty school districts in seven states	1969-70 School year (Spring 1970 Summer 1970)
Mark III	Field Trial B	school districts	1970-71 School year
	Diffusion		After December 1971

Table 1. Summary of developmental history of Oral Language Program, relating product phases to developmental stages, locations of developmental activities, and dates.

Phase 2 – Neither Fish nor Fowl

Albuquerque Head Start

The aspects of the H200 phase (Phase I) that bear on OLP have been discussed in Chapter I. The earliest efforts by SWCEL took place in the summer of 1967, when the H200 materials* were presented to ten Spanish speaking youngsters and to ten Navajo speaking youngsters in separate Head Start classes conducted at Atrisco school in Albuquerque. The lessons were taught by SWCEL employees, who then made suggestions for improvements in the lessons. These suggestions were incorporated into a limited number of changed lessons by the end of the summer of 1967. The changes were largely editorial; the most substantive change was to move the lesson "test" from the early part of the lesson to the end. The pupils were tested with the Oral English Capacity Test and the Oral English Proficiency Test after the trial.** These tests had no connection with the H200; the results played essentially no part in the further development of OLP.

Border Field Trial

In the fall of 1967 the lessons that resulted from the Head Start tryout described above were tested in seven first grade or beginner classrooms in four locations: – Smyer, Texas; two in San Miguel, N.M.; and Douglas, Arizona – towns and cities near the U.S.-Mexico border.*** The name of the trial was thus the "Border Field Trial." The one hundred children involved were native Spanish speakers. The teachers were regular school district employees; they were briefed on how to use the materials before school began, and then left on their own. SWCEL employees visited these schools on three occasions during the 1967-68 school year, there were one or two conference calls among SWCEL staff and the teachers, and the seven teachers met with the SWCEL staff in Albuquerque near the end of the Spring semester. There were "control" classrooms identified at each of the locations. All children were pre and post tested[2] with the same Oral English Capacity Test and Oral English Proficiency Test mentioned earlier. Additionally, children enrolled in the program were tested upon completion of batches of about twenty lessons with Content Tests written at the Laboratory expressly for this trial. These Content Tests were administered individually by a SWCEL staff member.

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*That is, as they existed in a working copy made available to Dr. Thomas Livingston of the Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory staff through the courtesy of Dr. Robert Wilson of the University of California at Los Angeles.

**Developed at the University of Texas at Austin by Elizabeth Ott and Gloria Jameson, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, 1966.

***The first author's connection with the Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory and the product that became the Oral Language Program began in September, 1967, after the Border Field Trials had been planned and launched.

The entering levels of the pupils varied considerably from classroom to classroom, as did the backgrounds of the teachers. Also uncontrolled and highly variable were the conditions under which the lessons were taught. Small groups, one large (whole class) group, and combinations thereof were observed, for example. For the most part, substantive changes in the content of lessons did not result from the Border Field Trial. However, some guidance about teachers' needs for preparation and encouragement, about classroom management during lessons, and about the physical handling of lesson books, supplies, and correspondence was obtained. On the other hand, the seven teachers did send in annotated copies of their lessons after having presented them, and these notes were sometimes useful for subsequent rewriting activities.

Sanders Experiment

For four weeks during October and November, 1967, at Sanders, Arizona, while the Border Field Trial was under way, another tryout of the same materials was conducted. Ten Navajo five and six year olds and one teacher trained for ten days at SWCEL and employed by the school district were involved. This small trial was run as an experiment, with an attempt at laboratory-like controls.*[3] Every minute of twenty lessons was video taped. The movement of both children and teacher was limited by rigorous requirements of the audio and video recording apparatus; therefore it is unlikely that the lessons received a fair classroom test. Sanders did represent the first attempt at a micro analysis of behavior within individual lessons; the first measures of frequency of opportunities to respond within lessons were taken there, and a measure of "lesson performance" related to those opportunities was constructed. A close relationship between this "lesson performance" and attentiveness during lessons was established.[4]

The children were tested with the first content test (see above) before and after the twenty lesson trial. Three areas of the Sanders experiment had impact on the Oral Language Program: the necessity for teacher pretraining at a fine grained level of behavior was highlighted; the possibility was raised that some Navajo youngsters would need to move much more slowly into and through the initial lessons than the H200 content seemed to suggest;* several problem areas that would become thematic were revealed – the "flow" within lessons, ** the determination of mastery, the issue of cultural relevance.

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*The "Vigilance Game" experiment was run simultaneously with the tryout of the lessons; thus the teacher acted as a research assistant as well as pilot teacher. See (3) for description of experiment.

Phase 3: Proto Mark I

Cañoncito Trials

While the Border Field Trial was still underway, efforts in the Proto Mark I phase began. These efforts included activities at a small BIA day school on the Cañoncito (Navajo) Reservation near Laguna, New Mexico, (fifty miles from Albuquerque) and at SWCEL. At Cañoncito, there were two classes: a Head Start class of twenty children, housed in the BIA school building but conducted and staffed by the Office of Navajo Economic Opportunity with a teacher and several aides, and the BIA "beginners" (first grade) with another twenty children and a teacher. In the latter classroom the teacher presented the same lessons tried at Sanders, Arizona, but continued with the lessons, whereas the Sanders experiment had stopped at Lesson 20. In the Head Start classroom, the teacher presented the newly constructed pre lessons[5] (partly an outgrowth of the Sanders experiment), and began the lessons proper, again of the same vintage as used at Sanders.

In addition to the different age groups, staffing, and sponsorship in the two Cañoncito classrooms, there were other differences in the conditions under which the materials were presented. In the BIA beginners classroom, there were two groups of ten children each. The children sat in a semicircle of chairs, getting up occasionally as the lessons indicated, while the teacher stood. In the ONEO Head Start class, the instruction gradually changed so that it was presented to four different groups of five children each, who sat on the floor near the teacher, who sat on a low chair. Generally, the Head Start children completed one half or less of a lesson in a day, and skipped days. The beginners did about one lesson per day and skipped days.

The pupils involved in the two Cañoncito classrooms were tested three

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*As a result, Vivian Horner wrote ***Pre-lessons: an Introductory Sequence of Lessons to Accompany an Oral Language Program***, published by Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory in 1968.

** Itself complex, involving individual repetition and group boredom, errors made inevitable by faulty programming, and awkward stage management.

times, with different tests: at the outset, the Oral English Proficiency Test (phonemic minimal pair test) revised for use with Navajos, the Oral English Capacity test, and the first Content Test (lessons 1-18). A month later, the first content test was given again, and a month after that, the second content test (through Lesson 40). These tests discriminated the two groups of children (Beginners and Head Start), and detected some improvement between administrations. However, as at Sanders and in the Border Field Trial, there was little impact of test results upon the rewriting of the program since 1) the information they provided was too long removed from the presentations of the lessons whose effect was being assessed, 2) only answers and not questions were elicited by the Content Tests, and 3) they elicited a high incidence of no answers or structurally uninformative (e.g., one word) answers.

The first author conducted the first design-test of the pre lessons, and helped work out classroom management procedures connected with adopting the lessons for use with four and one half year old youngsters.[6] Additionally, an observer from SWCEL attended all lessons in both classrooms daily during January to April 1968, and recorded the responses of all the children, activity by activity, on a tally sheet similar to that used for measuring "lesson performance" in the Sanders experiment. Code symbols were recorded next to every child's name for each utterance type in a given lesson for which that child had a chance to respond. These code symbols indicated whether his response echoed the teacher's model or was produced independently, whether the response was "correct" or not, or if no response occurred. The sheets were prepared in advance for each lesson, and comments and other details were noted on them during the lesson.

These records were especially useful in rewriting lessons. The effects of some departures from the intent of the lessons could be mitigated by making the instructions to the teacher more explicit. Among the "departures" that the record sheets made obvious were the replacement of opportunities for individual responses with group echo, the failure to notice and attempt to improve important errors in utterances, substitutions of different utterance types by children that showed they did not connect an utterance with a situation (***who is she*** for ***where is she***), and question-eliciting activities in which the children never understood what was expected of them.

Changes in Lessons

Overlapping the activities in the two Cañoncito classrooms were the efforts of SWCEL to write lessons for what would later be called Mark I Oral Language Program. The guidelines for this Proto Mark I writing effort grew from the experiences described (Border Field Trial, Sanders, early Cañoncito). In addition, after Lesson 20, some lessons were rewritten on an almost daily basis as required by feedback from the Cañoncito Beginners' classroom.

During the Spring 1968 Proto Mark I OLP writing, three writers were assigned lessons in batches of five, so that the need to consult the other writers came up frequently for each. The result was greater control over the shape of lessons and less inconsistency between batches than would have been the case if lessons were assigned in larger batches. At the same time, good ideas for Activities that began with one writer could find their way easily into the other writers' work. A fourth writer was assigned the pronunciation activities. The influences of this team approach to lesson production are of institutional interest rather than deriving from observation of teacher and pupil behavior; yet the effects on the program may have been substantial.

The changes incorporated into Proto Mark I OLP product were listed in the first edition of the ***Teacher's Manual to Accompany the Oral Language Program.****[7] In retrospect, the changes can be grouped according to the influence they reflect. By far the most important influence was working with children who were younger and culturally more distant from the school situation than the H200 planners had in mind. The next important influence was the observed and predicted behavior of teachers attempting to use the program. A number of changes traceable to other influences can be listed. Of course, some directions taken in the Proto Mark I writing done at SWCEL in the Spring of 1968 reflect multiple and simultaneous influences; the groupings are largely for convenience.

Influence of children. Among the changes influenced by the younger age or the unpreparedness of the pupils encountered by SWCEL in the Sanders, Border, and Cañoncito trials were the creation of five pre lessons and the considerable shortening of the first eight lessons. Both these actions reflect judgments and observations about entering behaviors of pupils: that pupils would encounter the program without certain presumed skills (including staying with a small group instruction session for several minutes), and that these skills should be explicitly imparted and approximated at the outset of the program.[8] Shortening all lessons was accomplished largely by deleting the "post test" activity. The rate at which new lesson material was introduced was slowed to about two thirds that of the H200: the equivalent in content of about one hundred H200 daily guides was presented in one hundred forty seven OLP daily lessons.

Deleting post test and slowing rate had effects that went beyond the motive. Deleting the daily post test as a ***means*** of shortening lessons was chosen because these activities were sometimes unconnected with the lesson content,* sometimes seemed unproductively repetitious of that content, were clumsily handled by teachers, and were not used, in fact, for assessment. Yet these faults could have been corrected without omitting post tests altogether, and the lessons shortened in other ways. In removing the post tests, the program was left without an "on-line" assessment system; much energy was applied subsequently to re-engineering such an assessment system.

Slowing the rate of presentation of new material was accomplished almost linearly; for any segment of OLP, about two thirds of a corresponding segment of H200 level I content was presented. Yet the pace could have been slowed non-linearly, perhaps by going slower than two thirds speed at the outset and then increasing the rate later in the program. Such a curvilinear adjustment might have approximated a model of behavior of pupils who encounter OLP with restricted entering repertoires but who in the course of the program begin learning "how" to learn language, building on redundancies, etc., so that their rate of learning accelerates markedly. Data to substantiate such a model – and by implication to guide the redesign of the program – was not gathered or used by SWCEL in the Proto Mark I writing effort; the merits of such a "curvilinear" approach remain untested with respect to the OLP to date.

Other changes in Proto Mark I were the "previewing" of utterance types by having teachers use them in lessons prior to requiring pupils to use them, and also attempting to make answering questions a much different event than asking them. Having children replace the teacher as the asker of questions was accordingly emphasized in the Proto Mark I writing.

Again this emphasis grew from a judgment that the child did not understand the situations in which he was supposed to ask but that he would understand if the situation were graphic and approximated first through non verbal responses (sitting in the teacher's chair).

Influences of teacher behavior. Several Proto Mark I OLP changes were influenced by judgments based on teacher behavior in the Sanders, Border, and Cañoncito trials. The daily plans were revised to present step-by-step instructions to the teacher, rather than suggestions. Each daily plan in Proto Mark I was divided into activities in which some change in circumstances or procedures determined where one activity left off and a new one began. Within an activity, numbered steps instructed the teacher on procedure. The H200 split-page with instructions and meta instructions or commentary was thus replaced; any behavior that teachers needed to perform an activity successfully was mentioned in the steps. These format changes were intended to enhance the communication from program designers to the teachers using the program and to make it easier to locate the course of difficulties in applying the instructions. The new format also was expected to lessen the effort required in preparing for lessons day by day, since the OLP plans could be followed in script fashion.

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*An analysis of the tapes from the Sanders experiment showed that lesson post test performance was not correlated with a measure of lesson performance based on responses during other parts of the lessons.

The activities and steps instructions also increased the likelihood that teachers would distinguish carefully between utterances that were used as stimuli, i.e., presented or spoken by the teacher and responded *to* by the pupils, and utterances that children were expected to produce *as* responses. This distinction also was stressed in the "objectives" statements. While hearing (responding *to*) an utterance may or may not increase one's chances of producing that utterance or one syntactically like it, it is easy to confuse the "understanding" of utterances of a given type with the use (saying) of them so that the latter behavior was sometimes erroneously presumed to be in the pupils' repertoire. Consequences become apparent in ensuing lessons. The distinction between answering and asking questions referred to above is a case of this distinction between receptive and expressive repertoires in which teachers without specialized training may get into difficulty.

In a similar vein, the format of the instructions emphasized the distinction between utterances produced by pupils as echoes of the teacher's model and utterances produced independently by pupils. Echoic behavior was relatively easily obtained by the teachers, but in itself echoing did not increase the subjective likelihood of pupils making the same kinds of utterances without the models. The explicit division of one activity from another made clear that the teacher was expected to move the pupils beyond echoing (from an activity with echoing in it) to independent production (into an activity without echoing).

The mere revision of text or format of instructions in daily lesson plans was not expected by itself to remedy defects in lesson presentation; rather it was considered that without such revision, the circumstances under which remedies would occur could not be created. Lesson plan writing thus had to be considered in concert with the potential and limitations of training.

Also based partly on judgments about teacher behavior in the early trials were the efforts in Proto Mark I writing to reduce the number of different objects that lessons called for, and the provision of a set of stimulus pictures and other aids.

Other Influences. Several other guidelines were followed that were not traceable directly to the behavior of children or teachers in the early trials. One such guideline specified that the lessons be written so that they could be used both with speakers of Spanish and speakers of Navajo. Advice from the developer to the writers was to increase the universality of the program's usefulness.* The skepticism about the importance of contrastive linguistic analysis in specifying the content of lessons was mentioned in Chapter I (see page 9). Further, the Lab's location, and the emphasis for "Regional" Educational Laboratories in 1967 and 1968 played a part. Multiple origins of this guideline aside, two events followed the decision: one was the construction of new pronunciation sections of the lessons, and the other was the attempt to construct "native tradition" lessons in the place of special lessons on Anglo cultural themes. In the new pronunciation activities, certain allophonic phenomena relating especially to syllable final features – vowel length, unreleasing of consonants – played an important part. These features were selected because they seemed important contributors to a native speaker like accent, and because in Spanish, Navajo, and some other Indian languages of the Southwest, syllable final phenomena are much less complex and varied than in English. Thus, contrastive analysis on the phonological level was applied in Proto Mark I OLP, but the analysis was three-way rather than two-way. In admitting a triple comparison, the developers rejected one implication of contrastive analysis: that an effective language teaching program must be tailored uniquely to the entering and the target languages. With respect to the sequence of syntactic content, there was no attempt to make the sequence used in H200 (and OLP) more applicable for Navajos, mainly because there was no agreement on what would constitute evidence that any sequence was or was not applicable.

Pronunciation. Specific attributes of the new pronunciation track were that it was allophonic in focus where the H200 had been phonemic, and that it emphasized articulatory skill. Instructions to the teacher for pronunciation thus became detailed with regard to articulatory phonetics, although these instructions avoided the specialized terminology of that field. Responding accurately to the differences between sounds was treated as a prerequisite to making those different sounds, so that one or two discrimination activities preceded "differentiation" activities for each pair or set of sounds. Exercises on consonants were alternated with exercises on vowels, so that a recently treated vowel nucleus could be held constant and practiced while a new set of consonants was introduced and

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*That is, usefulness to speakers of a variety of American Indian languages as well as to speakers of Spanish.

vice versa; sound segments were always presented within words or groups of words.

Tradition lessons. The "native tradition" lessons sketched in Proto Mark I OLP later were eclipsed by Cultural Heritage Review Units. Nonetheless, the inclusion of material with regional or ethnic relevance, and the inclusion of different material for different ethnic groups was envisioned during that phase of OLP. The authors thought then that it was possible to tailor the program for different groups. One question was, at what level of comparison was cultural (including linguistic) "tailoring" construed? In the Cultural Heritage Review Units, the syntactic content selected for review is chosen on the basis of a contrastive analysis of English and the language of the group for which the unit was built. Another question was, at what point in the cycle of design, test, revise, retest (or in classrooms, of teach, test, reteach, retest) can tailoring at the level of contrastive linguistic analysis be accomplished? The Cultural Heritage Review Units and the new pronunciation track offered one set of responses to these questions.

Sequence. The sequence of syntax presentation in Proto Mark I OLP was substantially the same as in Level I of H200. For example, the order in which verb tenses as well as question and statement patterns were introduced remained unchanged. However, some syntactic patterns were omitted, particularly in the later parts of the year's program, and the sequence within major sections was sometimes changed. Within the "past" tense forms, the sequencing of "irregular" and regular constructions was changed. A few lessons on "the" were added. In additions or changes of sub sequences, the aim was to increase the likelihood of mastery and reduce the likelihood of confusion on the part of students. The belief that changes in sequencing, especially within lessons, could affect these likelihoods reflected experiences with programmed instruction, and was borne out to some degree by the lessons that were revised in the course of the Cañoncito Field Trial. Greater substantiation of this detailed programming effort occurred during a later rewriting in 1969.

Phase 4: Mark I

The Proto Mark I writing effort ended late in the Spring of 1968; the resultant materials were printed that summer.* Eighty out of the one hundred twenty teachers participating in the "Integrated Plan Field Trial"** during school year 1968-69 received those materials. Preparations for a field trial of this scale had begun in the preceding Winter and Spring, and included the design of a two generation training and dissemination plan,[9] and eventually, a plan for evaluating aspects of the trial. Many features of training now associated with the Oral Language Program were initiated at that time; these are discussed elsewhere (see page 49).

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*This printing later was chosen as a reference point and labeled "Mark I."

** Called thus because it attempted to "integrate" independently conducted aspects of the Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory's program.

The Oral Language Program materials used in the Integrated Plan underwent considerable revision subsequent to that trial, the large number of classrooms notwithstanding; this fact points to an early stage of development, viz., design-test. On the other hand, there was an attempt to simulate ultimate market conditions, to test not only curricular, but other elements as well, and to make judgments about the effects of the program; these facts indicate that the program was actually in a later stage of development. However, since the assignment of a developmental stage is done retrospectively, the effort associated with the Integrated Plan may be referred to the Field Trial A stage of the development of the Oral Language Program. The version of the product used in those efforts is called "Mark I."

The Mark I OLP product included 147 daily lesson plans bound in six looseleaf notebooks with approximately 25 lessons in each book. A sample page is shown in Appendix B. Also included were six content tests and six checklists; these constituted prototypic alternatives for an on-line assessment system that had been tested preliminary to the Integrated Plan efforts. The checklists and content tests* were constructed subsequent to the "Proto Mark I" writing activity, and were in an earlier stage of development than the lessons. At the least, the checklists were summaries of the syntactic content of a batch of twenty five lessons. At most, they were informal behavior inventories upon which teachers, after listening to their pupils in or out of lessons, could keep track of mastery of particular utterance types – and especially whether that mastery was receptive or productive. For meeting the latter expectations the checklists or the method of implementation were poorly designed; the checklists were dropped as an assessment option after the Integrated Plan Field Trial.

The content tests were a somewhat more formal, teacher-administered procedure for estimating the degree to which pupils were achieving objectives of lessons. Their most distinctive feature was that they were administered to two pupils at a time because the authors thought that the "naturalness" of the test situation and the eliciting of question-responses (as opposed to answers) would be enhanced by that arrangement. The authors also felt that the two-pupil format could help to determine whether or not the speaking and understanding skills demonstrated in the ten-pupil lesson group were also demonstrated outside the group. Unlike the checklists, the content tests provided specific cueing situations (props, directions) for responses, and thereby provided the basis of definitions of achievement or nonachievement of program objectives.

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*These were not the same "Content Tests" as were used in Cañoncito and Border Field Trials.

For the most part, the content tests were unsuccessful in the Integrated Plan as either devices whereby teachers could adjust their instruction, or as sources of information for modification of the program itself. The greatest single reason was that their length (fifteen minutes) was forbidding when multiplied by the number of times they had to be given (one half times the number of children). Therefore, many teachers stopped giving or never gave the tests. Further, there was no system for processing the data and feeding it into lesson rewriting efforts. However, there was enough information about use of content tests gained from a few teachers to support further efforts at building an on-line assessment system.

Integrated Plan Field Trial

Twenty four teachers from each of five cooperating agencies participated in the Integrated Plan Field Trial. The cooperating agencies were local school districts in Bernalillo, New Mexico; Odessa, Texas; Tempe, Arizona; and Tulsa, Oklahoma, and the Child Development (Head Start) Program of the Office of Navajo Economic Opportunity. The children taught by these one hundred twenty teachers varied considerably along several dimensions, as did the sites. The Bernalillo district included Indian pupils from two Pueblos and Mexican American children from the town of Bernalillo and from small outlying villages. Odessa comprised Mexican American and Black children from poorer neighborhoods in that small city. In Tempe, the children were Mexican Americans and Yaqui Indians from poor neighborhoods on the outskirts of Phoenix. The ONEO Head Start classes were made up of four and five year old Navajo children from many different parts of the Navajo reservation. In Tulsa, the children were from economically varying Black inner-city neighborhoods.

This assortment of populations was selected largely on the basis of the willingness of the agencies to participate in the Integrated Plan Field Trial; there were no selection criteria for pupils. The criteria for choosing teachers were broad: the teacher had to be experienced at the elementary level.[10] Four teachers from each agency became "master" teachers, and were trained to conduct "second generation" training for twenty more teachers from their respective agencies. These "master" teachers were identified by their respective administrators. Most of the teachers were Anglos; there were several Mexican Americans, especially in Bernalillo; Blacks, particularly in Tulsa, and Indians, particularly Navajo in ONEO. Except for ONEO, the great majority of the classrooms were self contained first grades with twenty five or more pupils and one teacher. In

ONEO, the teacher worked with one or more Navajo speaking aides and about twenty children. Two thirds of the teachers in the Integrated Plan eventually conducted OLP instruction and not every child in these eighty or so classrooms received OLP instruction; thus there were about 1500 pupils involved in this OLP field trial.

Evaluation. Evaluation activities connected with the Integrated Plan Field Trial were planned in the summer of 1968. By and large, these activities proceeded from premises characteristic of summative evaluation: after the fact decisions about the worth of the program and traditional educational experimentation. For example, a statistical comparison of successive measures of groups undergoing OLP with measures of groups not undergoing that treatment was made. Within this model, variations in the OLP treatment included group size (less or more than nine), group composition (homogenous or heterogeneous with respect to English language proficiency), and pacing conditions (all groups at a uniform rate of progress through the lessons, or different rates for different groups).

Many premises of the evaluation paradigm mentioned were not met: the developers did not see the program as ready for an overall judgment of its effectiveness; it was still subject to extensive revision. A program-based test covering the content of the lessons* was not given at the outset so that pre and post comparisons were tenuous at best. "Control" classrooms were systematically less likely to include pupils who needed the program, since they were chosen from classes remaining after the "neediest" had been selected for OLP. Thus, statistical comparisons of experimental and "control" groups were uninformative with respect to program effectiveness. With respect to variations of the treatment, anecdotal and subjective information was gathered that was useful to the developers, but conclusions about comparative effects of varying conditions could not be drawn.

Formative evaluation. Although they were not so labeled then, formative evaluation efforts also were undertaken during the Integrated Plan Field Trial. SWCEL staff members attended biweekly meetings with teachers at the field sites. They reported on progress through lessons, problems with individual lessons, and with implementing the program under the different conditions. Every two weeks, the staff members watched lessons being taught in half the classrooms at any site, and submitted detailed

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*The Michael Test of Oral English Production (see page 67) was given in midyear and at the end of the school year. Pupils also were administered the (Caldwell) Preschool Inventory, the Lee Clark Reading Readiness Test, and the Metropolitan Achievement Test. Aspects of the data were reported in the *Basic Program Plan,* SWCEL, 1968.

commentaries about aspects of the lessons: length, responsiveness of pupils, use of realia and puppets, familiarity with lesson plan, use of certain teaching techniques, size and composition of groups, degree to which lesson objectives appeared to have been met, sources of difficulty in that lesson, and others. These comments and observations were compiled for all teachers and observers lesson by lesson. In fact, the number of classrooms represented per lesson varied between one and six.

The compilation was used as a reference by writers of the Mark II Oral Language Program. Because it included data from many widely differing sources, similarities in comments about lessons helped assure the authors that the problems were in the lessons and not in the conditions peculiar to one or another location.

In overview, the main contribution of the Integrated Plan Field Trial was that it served as a design-test of a strategy for future widespread implementation and dissemination of SWCEL programs, among which the OLP was prominent. Partly because of the exigencies of having to establish and service a large scale adoption, more or less durable solutions were proposed and tried for problems that SWCEL had to face if its products were to enter diffusion. Among these problems were the construction of training practices that could be duplicated, the assurance of "quality," (that the program was used within the limits of its design),[11] the identification of entrance requirements that protected the consumer as well as the producer, and the distribution of responsibility among adopters and developers of a program.

From the standpoint of OLP content, the major benefit of the Integrated Plan Field Trial was to provide developers with a much more varied background of experience about conditions of use than had been available. Specific accomplishments were the compilation of comments and observations mentioned earlier, i.e., the design-test of the prototype materials written in the Spring of 1968, and the design or identification and testing of on-line and pre and post assessment procedures.

Conclusions. General conclusions about implementation and dissemination which were substantiated or suggested by the Integrated Plan Field Trial (but for which quantitative data cannot be provided) include the following: the program has a good chance of continued adoption if the local adopting agency is committed to the program from the highest to the lowest levels of administration and staff; clear and congruent understanding by administrators and teachers of the purposes of the program is crucial; changes in administration at any level within a district or agency are unpropitious for continuing adoption; the needs of adopting agency personnel are not necessarily the same as the needs of the clientele for whom a program is built and if their needs are incompatible, the product is in for trouble.*

Conclusions bearing on OLP content at a similar level of confidence with the above were the following: 1) Navajo Head Start youngsters most clearly met the design criterion of "utter beginner" in English, and for a variety of reasons had the most difficulty with Mark I OLP of any group. One factor was their young age (vis a vis the program demands), and another was the experience of their teachers with ESL. At several ONEO sites, the pupils went through only a few lessons in a month. Attempts to further redesign the program were heavily motivated and influenced by experience with this group (see especially, page 44 below). 2) There were large differences among teachers of various Mexican American populations in the degree of perceived need for and satisfaction with the program. 3) The use of OLP with Black children could not be advised on the basis of experience in the Integrated Plan Field Trial. 4) Any feeling that the children did not need the program – whether accurate or not – was destructive of implementation of the program by teachers. 5) High involvement training procedures were productive of strong support for the program among users. 6) The chances for successful implementation of OLP by a teacher decreased rapidly as the size of groups went above nine or ten. 7) The assumption that teachers had little (or a low level of) experience with systematic ESL instruction methods was valid for design of the OLP. 8) Teachers leaned heavily upon advice and encouragement from visiting SWCEL personnel. 9) A majority of the children liked the program. 10) A majority of the teachers liked the program, although for diverse reasons. 11) The outstanding impact of the program expressed by teachers was their increased awareness that their OLP pupils spoke more and were "better" speakers than their counterparts of previous years. 12) The program did not harm children nor cause deterioration in other measures of their school performance. 13) There was no evidence for a need to overhaul the sequence of presentation of syntactic content in OLP for application with speakers of languages other than Spanish.

Use of OLP with Black children. Point 3 in the preceding list – that using the OLP with Black children could not be advised on the basis of experience in the Integrated Plan Filed Trial – is derived from the application of OLP in Tulsa, Oklahoma. The eighteeen teachers in Tulsa were divided in their assessments of the program's usefulness. The most heard complaints, mainly from white teachers, were that the children were bored because the program moved too slowly for them, it did not expand their "vocabulary" on a scale commensurate with the time taken, and that the children did not need the program to begin with. The expectations of the program may have been too high. No comprehensive survey of Black dialects in Tulsa was conducted prior to introducing OLP. The first author can only report from personal observation that more than one dialect could be heard among children and teachers in the OLP classrooms, and that some of the children came from middle class homes. Sophistication about dialect differences among school personnel was approximately at the level of "correcting errors" in pronunciation; anxieties and tensions on the topic of dialects were high. Just prior to the introduction of OLP into Tulsa classrooms, the district had (as a response to a court desegregation order) moved some Black teachers into virtually all white schools and some white teachers into virtually all Black schools. These reassignments affected classrooms and teachers in the predominantly Black schools where OLP was expected to be used; the effects on attitudes toward the program cannot be overlooked even if they cannot be enumerated. The Tulsa school district did not continue use of OLP in succeeding school years. With hindsight, the authors feel that the Tulsa experience was instructive in many ways, especially on the politics of program implementation, but advancing linguistic and sociolinguistic perspective on the use of an ESL program with urban Black children was not one of them. Obviously, this experience did not support a recommendation that OLP be taught to Black children.

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*The Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory became involved in and the Oral Language Program was ultimately affected by important local discontinuities in administrative communication in ONEO, Tempe, Bernalillo, and Tulsa, but not Odessa. In 1970, the clearest example of an agency that had independently adopted Oral Language Program was Ector County Public Schools (Odessa).

Mississippi Experiment

Although it was not done within the framework of the Integrated Plan Field Trial, the Laboratory conducted another trial of OLP with Black children, this time in rural Mississippi during the Winter and Spring of 1968. In Holmes County (Lexington), Mississippi, Black teachers, after instruction in Albuquerque, taught the Oral Language Program lessons to first grade pupils in all Black schools.

The motivation for introducing the OLP in Holmes County lay outside the developmental goals of the program. Holmes County was one of the poorest in the United States; children often came to school with no breakfast and some had to be excluded from the school lunch program on alternate days. Cursory investigation of Black and white dialects in the area had been undertaken by staff members of the Sociolinguistics Program of the Center for Applied Linguistics. In a letter to SWCEL,[12] investigator Roger Shuy said: "There is considerable difference between the speech of first grade Negro children and first grade white children of relatively similar socal status." He also suggested that Lexington dialects were typical of the rural south. About the Mark I OLP, Shuy said that the

Center for Applied Linguistics reported: "We found relatively few lessons which are directly useful to the programs of the children interviewed. Some are quite relevant and quite good, but on the whole, the lessons need a great deal more adaptation to the specific features in question." The staff's comments on specific lessons were contained in a ***Report on the Oral Language Program***[13] submitted to SWCEL in August, 1969. This report supports skepticism about the utility of the OLP for teaching standard English to Southern rural Black children.

However, introducing OLP into Holmes County may have had salutary effects: teachers got specialized training, and adapted their teaching to small group modes; children were heard, had a change to succeed, played the role of teacher, and so on. While summary test scores, pre and post (Michael Test) tended to group Black pupils with Anglos (or not group them with Spanish speakers and Indian language speakers; see page 73), administrators and teachers in Lexington might assign a favorable cost-benefit rating to the Oral Language Program. Even so, the authors feel that a recommendation to use the Oral Language Program in a instructional curriculum for Black children in the rural south cannot be based on the experience of Holmes County.

Phase 5: Proto Mark II

In December 1968, in the middle of the Integrated Plan Field Trial, the next significant set of activities began: the redesign and rewriting of lessons, and the initial design-testing of Proto Mark II Oral Language Program. This set of activities was carried on at the Laboratory in two main segments. First, revisions of lessons 1-25 were undertaken, with children in SWCEL's "mini-school" (laboratory classroom). These "mini-school" procedures continued in spurts through the first half of 1969. The other segment was the continued writing of Proto Mark II OLP from Lesson 26 on by a team of writers, with a lesser role played by mini-school; this segment lasted well into the 1969-1970 school year (see Figure 1, p. 22). The output of these writing activities was available for testing in a limited field situation during the 1969-70 school year – as lessons were produced, they were sent out to "Mark II" classrooms. (Aspects of this field activity are presented in Chapter III). Figure 2, p. 40 suggests the relation of this set of redesign activities to other events.

Revision Procedures: Mini-School

"Mini-school" was attended by about ten children from Albuquerque's South Valley. After some searching, they were selected as beginners with respect to English. Partly since they had to be available during school hours, they were under school age (four and five years old); six were girls and four were boys; two were recent Mexican immigrants; one was a

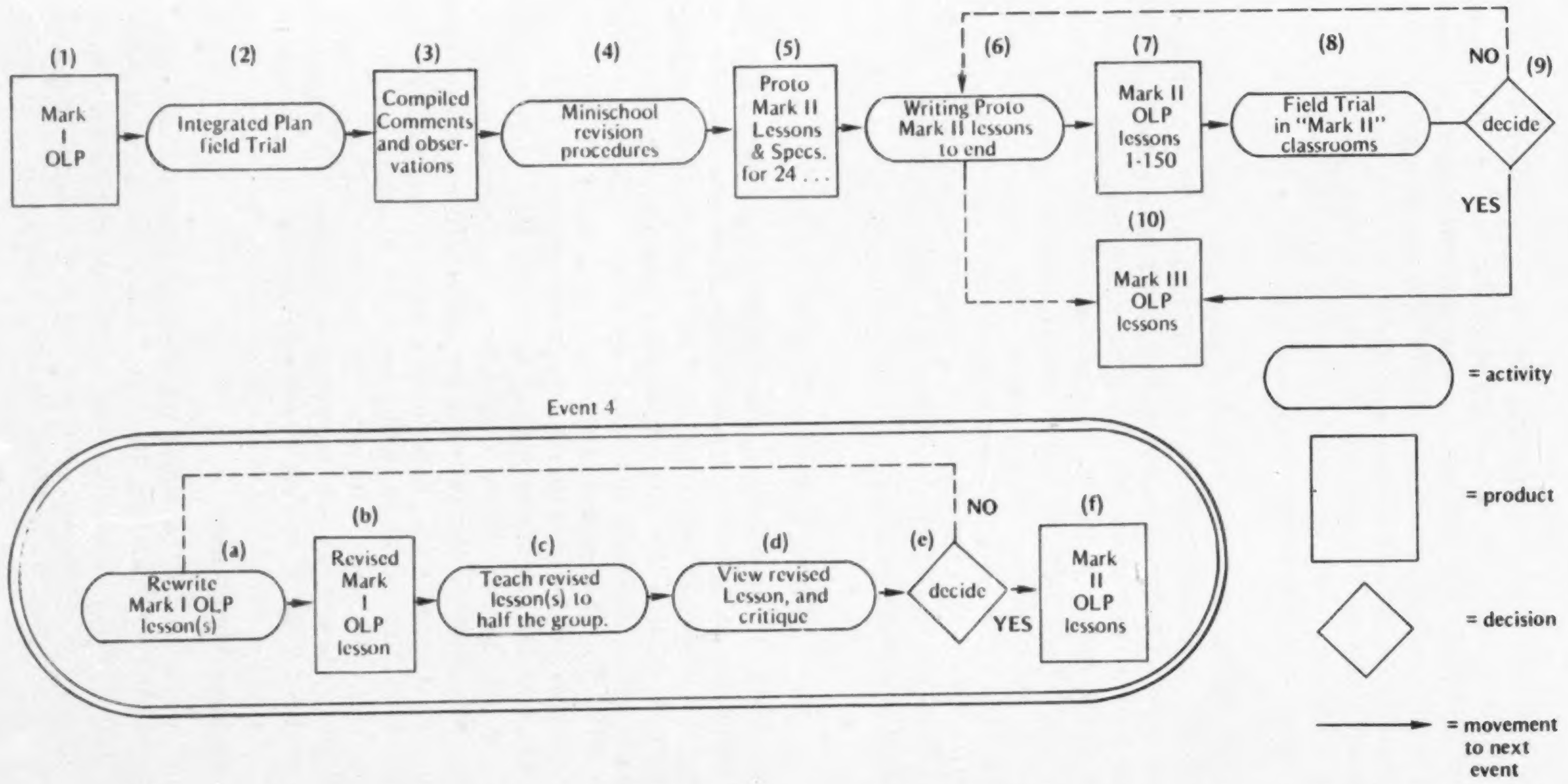
(1)
Mark I OLP
(2)
Integrated Plan field Trial
(3)
Compiled Comments and observations
(4)
Minischool revision procedures
(5)
Proto Mark II Lessons & Specs. for 24 . . .
(6)
Writing Proto Mark II lessons to end
(7)
Mark II OLP lessons 1-150
(8)
Field Trial in "Mark II" classrooms
NO
(9)
decide
YES
(10)
Mark III OLP lessons
= activity
= product
= decision
= movement to next event
Event 4
(a)
Rewrite Mark I OLP lesson(s)
(b)
Revised Mark I OLP lesson
(c)
Teach revised lesson(s) to half the group.
(d)
View revised Lesson, and critique
(e)
decide
NO
YES
(f)
Mark II OLP lessons

Figure 2. **Top:** Flow chart of progress from Mark I to Mark III Oral Language Program. Logical sequence, but not chronology, of events is preserved, e.g., events 2 and 4 overlap in time, as do 6 and 8.

Bottom: Detail of event 4, Minischool revision proceedures.

Jemez Pueblo boy, and the rest were Mexican Americans. In fact, perhaps half the children approximated "utter beginner" status closely at the outset of the experiments described here; the other half had varying degrees of marginal English, and none could be called a proficient speaker of English. For nine of the children, the native language and language of the home was Spanish.

Facilities for mini-school consisted of two areas: a playroom, and a tiny "classroom." The latter could be monitored via one-way glass and loud speakers, and also by video and audio recording apparatus controlled from a remote location where playback equipment also was housed. A low round table and five or six child sized chairs were in the carpeted classroom; a gauze draw curtain covered the one-way glass. The walls of the room were undecorated. Objects brought into the room for the purpose of trying out lessons constituted the only other items outside of the furnishings. Another low round table, a standard work table, small chairs, shelves with various preschool type toys, puzzles and games, and books and other items were in the playroom. The "curriculum" in the play room was primarily custodial at least at first: a snack was served, stories were read, the children went to an outside playground for about half an hour a day, and there was much ad lib play. A SWCEL staff member called for and delivered the children, and remained with them during mini-school hours from 9:30 to 11:00 every morning. The mini-school met for three consecutive weeks; then recessed for a week. The first author and an assistant tested lessons in the "classroom," usually at 9:30 and at 10:30. Typically, lessons were presented by the assistant.

Procedures directed toward the redesign of OLP lessons were thus developed. These procedures represented a return to an earlier stage of development than the Integrated Plan field activities represented. In fact, they involved the close and comprehensive observation, the very short feedback loops between successive revisions and trials, and the close coordination among program designer, tester (teacher), and a limited selected target population that characterize a design stage, and that had been omitted from the early trials of OLP discussed above.

Figure 2, p. 40 bottom, illustrates the sequence of events followed in mini-school lesson revision procedures. The procedures began with an examination of the first Mark I lessons in batches of four or five. The compiled commentaries were reviewed, and possible sources for problems identified there were sought in the lessons. In most cases then, a single Mark I OLP lesson used by Integrated Plan Field Trial teachers was taught to half of the mini-school pupils. This teaching was watched live, and then on video tape, and checked against the Mark I "script." Flaws in programming – where confusion or errors had been inevitable, where links between activities had been omitted, where opportunities to enhance clarity and the probability of pupils' success had been overlooked – were isolated. Also noted were mismatches between objectives statements and lesson activities, and activities that led to boredom or obstreperousness. Similarly, instructions that interfered with the teacher's ability to watch and listen to children, or that were otherwise awkward, were examined.

From this critique, remedies were incorporated into the lesson in question. (Remedies often applied across lessons; hence the reason for first examining batches.) In some cases, an essentially new lesson with a different relation of activities to objectives, and with a different approach or emphasis, was drafted. The revising or redrafting was done as soon after viewing the Mark I lesson as possible – often within the same morning. The assistant prepared the revised or redrafted lesson, and then taught that version to the other half of the mini-school group. Again the lesson was viewed and critiqued and judged on the behavior of the children. If it appeared to be improved over the first version, effective, and responsive to problems noted in the complied comments, the cycle was started with the next Mark I lesson.

The criteria were subjectively assessed; "effective" referred to economy of teacher effort on the one hand, and to pupil behavior on the other. Among pupil behaviors sought were those that indicated the pupils understood what was expected of them, that they understood and used utterance types presented in the lessons, and that they were highly attentive to and participated in the activities with a low rate of competing behaviors. Economy of teacher effort referred to the number of different objects that had to be handled, the number of repetitions of model presentations, the amount of cueing and stage direction that had to be undertaken to achieve criterion response from children – in general, lower amounts with the same effectiveness were preferred. Also considered were signs or expressions of bewilderment, harassment, error, or of enjoyment, confidence and accuracy on the teacher's part. Time parameters were watched; occasionally lessons were taught to the full mini-school group of ten children as a check on lesson length, for example. If these criteria were not met, the procedures were iterated until they were met. "Successful" lessons were considered to be Proto Mark II lessons, to be printed eventually.

When several Mark I lessons had been revised in this fashion, the developers attempted to identify generalizations about the remedies or revisions that were successful in solving recurrent problems. The week long hiatus in mini-school activities that came every fourth week was useful in this regard. When a generalization could be reached, it was prescribed for the revision of ensuing batches of lessons. Thus, the elaborate teach-critique-revise cycle was not used to rediscover the same principles. Following these procedures, it took several months to redesign the equivalent of Mark I lessons 1-25 into Mark II 1-23. At the end of that period however, some significant prescriptions were available for the rewriting of lessons from 25 on.

Revisions

Of the themes that arose from the revision procedures, the most prominent emphasized how crucial it was for the child to comprehend the situation that a lesson was constructing. The rationale ascribed after the fact for this content theme is based on theoretical aspects of the relation of languages to events in the communities where they are used, as follows: Any language provides a mapping of signficiant aspects of events. To follow the mapping – to get meaning from utterances – one must at least grasp that events are taking place and be watchful for significant aspects of them, and especially for changes in events that are associated with changes in utterances. In the English language lesson, what happens in activities constitutes such a set of events.

Some examples of revisions made in lessons explicate this theme. Formerly where a teacher had been called upon to present a model dialogue using two hand puppets, the lesson was rewritten so that only one puppet was used. With both hands engaged with puppets, the teacher could not use a hand for pointing, holding other things, gesturing to pupils to respond, and so forth. Even more important however, is that with two puppets "conversing," using the teacher's one voice, the probability is high that the pupils will lose sight of which puppet is speaking and which spoken to. They may perceive that the teacher is speaking for himself. For mastering syntactic structure, such distinctions are vital data. Consider the use of *I* and *you* and associated forms, and the use of *he* and *she* and forms associated with them. Who is speaking, what the speaker is doing, who other parties are, and what they are doing are essential data for using personal pronouns (and many other patterns). Having the teacher speak as himself and speak to only one puppet improves the chances that this data is indeed provided.

The changing of roles of puppets is related to the theme. With two puppets, in many H200 (and OLP Mark I) lessons, first one puppet was asker and the other was answerer, and then the roles reversed. In Mark II, repetitions of model dialogues with slight changes in elements were accomplished by having the teacher put a puppet down and get another one or even talk to a doll the second time, so that the pupils could always tell who was asking and who answering.

Maintaining constancies in speaking roles also was useful because the transfer of roles from teacher to pupil could be accomplished in graduated steps, again improving the odds that pupils could follow the action. For example, if a teacher is questioning a puppet about something, the teacher can first replace the puppet with a student (who gets asked) and subsequently replace himself with a different student (who does the asking). This graduated strategy is typical in Mark II lessons.

For the advantages of revisions of this type to be passed on to pupils, the instructions to teachers (the lesson plans) also had to convey methods for presenting dialogues and important stimuli with minimum chance of confusion. This was attempted by adding drawings (See Appendix C) that showed the sequence of steps in puppet dialogues and similar activities, and keying them to the step-by-step instructions on the facing page.

Another recurring change was the replacement of all third person chain dialogues* with other kinds of activities. In a chain dialogue, pupil A asks a question of pupil B who answers it and in turn asks the same question of pupil C, and so on. When the question that pupil A asks B is about B, it's in the second person: "What do you see?" and B answers simply about himself, "I see a dog." However, when pupil A asks B about someone *else* (pupil C): "What does Billy see?" then B answers in the third person: "He sees a dog." The latter is a third person chain dialogue continued when B then turns to C and addresses him, asking about D. Thus C changes from being spoken about to being spoken to. This procedure is described awkwardly in writing; it was a source of great confusion in the Integrated Plan Field Trial, especially among Navajo Head Start youngsters. The children could not remember who was to be addressed by whom about whom; they did not understand what was going on and therefore received no help in mastering the use of the types of utterances involved.

A typical replacement for a third person chain dialogue involved asking one pupil to stand up front or aside. He then would be the one asked *about*, and any one who took his place was also asked *about*. The teacher would ask a question about this pupil; any pupil who took over for the teacher would also be the asker. Children sitting in the group would be asked the question by the teacher, each one he spoke to was the answerer. In many ways, Mark II is a succession of variations upon this approach, with appropriate adjustments for different aspects of syntactic structure presented.

Another characteristic Proto Mark II change was the reconstruction of activities so that pupils had to find out answers to questions before they could in turn provide appropriate responses. In other words, the information needed was truly unpredictable, even if it was one out of only two or three possibilities. Otherwise, questions were not really questions, and the pseudo questioning activity taught pupils little about the use of question utterances. Similarly, assurance of real differential consequences was sought. For example, if a child answered "no. . ." when offered something, the instructions said that he should not be given the object. In early lessons using *want*, activities were added so that the pupils had a choice not only between wanting and receiving something or nothing, but between two items. This additional choice provided another situational clue to how *want* is used, and increased the likelihood that the pupils' utterances would be reinforced in the operant sense.

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*Chain dialogues were characteristic of H200.

In writing Proto Mark II, activities and steps in which the entire group echoed a model utterance – three times, in many cases – often were deleted. Group echos left in were placed so that the echo was also a functional response whenever possible: everyone would ask Susan if she wanted some peanut butter.

In connection with some of these revisions, instructions were rewritten so that "repeat . . . with every pupil" no longer appeared. If a pupil was to take over the teacher's role as "asker" for example, the teacher was not instructed to let every child in turn take over the role. Rather, some pupils took that role, others played another role, others participated in a later activity. Over the course of several activities, however, every pupil should have participated sufficiently to attain the lesson objectives. Furthermore, nearly every lesson included an activity that reviewed the previous lesson; pupils who had missed opportunities in the previous lesson could have them in the review, as could pupils who needed more help.

Pronunciation. While the rewriting described above was underway, the Pronunciation Track and the Assessment system also were being revised. The Proto Mark II pronunciation activities retained most of the same characteristics discussed on page 31. However, the sequencing of pronunciation lessons was more carefully organized, so that about fifteen pronunciation "topics"* were assigned a bloc of about ten lessons each. Within each bloc, lessons were allocated for systematic review of previous blocs on a tapering schedule (the most reviews closest to the initial presentation). The objectives for each pronunciation activity were specified to a much greater degree so as to more clearly distinguish between hearing and responding to sound differences, and uttering those differences. For the former type of activity (hearing), the instructions now required that the pupils be shown particular overt nonverbal responses (such as clapping, or raising a hand) they could use to "tell" the teacher that they could hear a sound difference. The instructions also suggested how the teacher could tell by delaying his own models whether these signals from the children were valid.

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* Topics of pronunciation were: 1) Vowel length as conditioned by voicing of final consonants; 2) aspiration of initial voiceless stops versus initial voiced stops; 3) aspirated initial versus unreleased final voiceless stops; 4) clusters with s, z; 5) θ, đ; 6) morphophonemics of plurals; 7) š, č, y, ǰ; 8) discrimination of stressed syllable; 9) syllabic m, n, l, r; 10) final m, n, η; 11) discrimination of pitch-stress patterns; 12) r; 13) morphophonemics of past tense; 14) ι/i;∂.

Pronunciation topics were extended to include the morphophonemics of [-ed] (past tense) and [-s] (plural, possessive, third person singular) endings. Blocs of these activities were placed in the sequence prior to the lessons in which the syntactic track took up patterns using those sound alternations. Although the pronunciation activities underwent some testing in the mini-school, it was not nearly as intensive or extensive as for the syntactic track. In general, while the pronunciation track appeared to be improved in Proto Mark II, it remained at an earlier stage of development than did the syntactic track printed with Mark II.

Assessment devices. The prototypic (Mark I) assessment devices discussed on pp. were overhauled between March and September 1969 and were tested during the 1969-70 school year. Input to this overhaul came from a conference of linguists and ESL testing specialists held at SWCEL on March 21, 1969, as well as from experiences of the Integrated Plan Field Trial then underway. The specialists discussed the importance of the teacher as an assessor, the need to base any assessment system firmly on the objectives of the program, and the need to connect assessment with events outside the twenty minute daily lesson. In particular, the specialists advised that SWCEL distinguish efforts to evaluate large-scale field activities (such as the Integrated Plan Field Trial) from efforts to develop a better assessment system and program. This latter advice was reflected in the distribution of tasks in 1969-70 school year among the "Mark II summative," and "Mark II formative" classrooms (see pp. 78-79).

Among revisions and additions that went into Proto Mark II assessment system were the shortening of content tests by about half, and simplification of the scoring. A feedback system whereby analyses and summaries of results by groups were returned to teachers one week after test administration was built in as well. Also returned to the teachers was a list of Lesson and Activity numbers that the pupils' test performance suggested reviewing, based on zero-credit responses to content test items. Actually reviewing the lessons or activities was at the teacher's discretion. The content tests and associated training for the teacher were considered as one set of options for a "performance criterion assessment system" for OLP.

The other set of options was a combination of newly constructed "Criterion Lessons" on the one hand and "Progress Reports" on the other.

The Criterion Lessons looked like all other OLP Lessons, but constituted reviews of a seven or eight-lesson segment of the program, and contained activities specifically designed to allow pupils to demonstrate that they had achieved the objectives of that segment. There were twenty Criterion Lessons altogether. They occurred at natural breaks in the sequence of lessons, as identified by an analysis of the Proto Mark II program in generative grammatical terms* done by the second author.

The Progress Reports were designed for the teacher's use in connection with each Criterion Lesson; they were intended as a means of recording which pupils had reached the objectives, which had not, and those about whom this judgment was uncertain. In fact, the Criterion Lesson was expressly built for the resolution of that kind of uncertainty. Thus the teacher was expected to categorize the children in terms of mastery or attainment of objectives on the basis of what he knew about the pupils both from lessons and outside of lessons. He was to do the categorizing ***before*** teaching the Criterion Lesson associated with that Progress Report. Then, having made decisions about the "uncertain" pupils during the Criterion Lesson, the teacher was expected to record on the Progress Report his plans for helping pupils who had not reached objectives. (The Progress Report provided information also about where to find appropriate activities for recycling instruction.) A copy of the Progress Report sent to the Laboratory also was expected to provide data on mastery, typical errors, and utterances used by pupils outside of lessons. Overall, the use of Progress Reports and Criterion Lessons was predicted to increase the teachers' skills in assessment of language growth considerably.

The design of Criterion Lessons depended heavily on the improvement in clarity and accuracy of lesson objectives that was accomplished with the writing of Proto Mark II. Criterion Lessons were noteworthy in that they juxtaposed utterance types that had been presented separately from the others in the preceding segment of five or six lessons. Thus the pupils had an opportunity to cope with the discrimination of *what* questions from *do* questions, for example. Criterion Lessons for Lesson 1-23 were designed in the cycle of mini-school procedures described earlier; remaining Criterion Lessons were based on that model and tested in mini-school when possible.

This option (Progress Reports and Criterion Lessons) for an assessment system was tried in five formative Mark II classrooms during 1969-70; aspects of it were also tried in 35 Mark II summative classrooms. (The revised, shortened Content Tests, though intended as components of Mark

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*This analysis was also the basis for deciding where to put the break between lesson books for packaging and eventually where to insert the Content Tests and Cultural Heritage Review Units.

II, were tested as system elements among the 1969-70 "Mark I" classrooms.) Briefly, the outcome of all this testing was to drop most aspects of Progress Reports as not usable beyond early program developmental stages since they were mainly useful to developers and difficult to export; to keep Criterion Lessons and combine them with Content Tests into still another configuration for assessment which would be tested during the 1970-71 school year.

As another element in the assessment system, a set of "District Entrance Requirements" was prepared. The requirements described the conditions that should prevail in a school district and in particular schools for the use of the Oral Language Program to be appropriate, and for district's investment in the training of teachers to be worthwhile. These requirements were that the district's clientele be presumed to be 25% or more non-English speaking, that non-English speaking children constitute at least a certain ratio compared to the total population in a school, in a cluster of classrooms, or within a classroom.[14] The Requirements assumed that decisions about installing the program had to be made at times when prospective pupils were not in school yet, for to test the pupils would require a large investment at a time when the district still might decide not to take the program. (See the description of the Michael Test, the SWCEL Test . . . pp. 67-69).

The Cultural Heritage Review Units (CHRU) mentioned on p. 14 were also being designed, researched, and constructed in prototype form during the writing of Proto Mark II. The objectives and rationale for the Cultural Heritage Review Units have been described elsewhere.[15] In the context of rebuilding an assessment system for OLP, they are interesting for two reasons: 1) the four daily lessons in one CHRU review syntactic content of the preceding fifty or so OLP lessons in an ethnically relevant context, and 2) the fifth "lesson" in a CHRU tells a complete story on film strip and audio tape on which the language is not restricted to that found only in the preceding fifty lessons. Thus, performance in CHRU activities (pupils encounter three CHRUs in OLP) reflects on performance over many days, and therefore may contribute to estimates of pupil success in the program. More importantly, the new context and the language of the story may provide a means for assessing generalization of use of English sentences, from a limited corpus of utterances and situations to new cases. While CHRUs for Spanish speaking and Navajo situations have been tested in classrooms at various times between Spring 1969 to this writing, the potential of the Units as components of OLP assessments remains to be explored.

Development of the Teacher Training Component

At the beginning of the Oral Language Program Classroom trials, SWCEL staff members saw that teachers would have to be trained to use the program if they were to do so effectively. SWCEL, however, knew that training eventually would have to be independent of the Lab. Thus, it decided to incorporate in the training program only those elements that could later to taken over by an agency such as a university, a school district, educational service center, or other teacher training institution. As a result, the training program's outstanding elements have histories nearly as long as the OLP lessons and include the following:

- The systematic design of teacher objectives and the training components to achieve those objectives.
- The procedures that allowed SWCEL to train only a few "Master Teachers" at First Generation Institutes who in turn trained other teachers at Second Generation Institutes.
- The production of media presentations that need only a minimal introduction by a trained individual.
- The efforts to install OLP training in university preservice classes.

Teacher training as SWCEL has conducted it is divided into two segments: summer institutes and inservice meetings during the school year. Since SWCEL felt that teachers should demonstrate that they can use the lessons reasonably well before trying them in the classrooms, the summer institutes are devoted to practice in microteaching sessions and by pairs of teachers. The inservice meetings during the school year help to raise teacher morale and provide the opportunity to present training components not presented during the summer.

Although a detailed description of the training procedures is included in this chapter, the following synopsis is helpful in illustrating the progession from SWCEL directed training to outside agency directed training:

1967 – Border Field Trial teachers attended a two and one half day orientation session conducted by SWCEL personnel. The Sanders Experiment teacher spent ten days at SWCEL in training.

1968 – The first systematic training was conducted for Master Teachers who, with the aid of SWCEL personnel, conducted training for other teachers in their home districts.

1969 – Mark I teachers were trained in institutes conducted by Master Teachers; Mark II teachers were trained by SWCEL personnel only.

1970 – SWCEL conducted one Master Teacher institute only; all other teachers were trained by these Master Teachers with the help of only a few SWCEL staff members. Some institutes were conducted without the presence of any SWCEL personnel. Preservice training was initiated at New Mexico State University where it was conducted with limited help from SWCEL.

Border Field Trial

A two and one half day orientation for the seven Border Field Trial teachers was conducted at El Paso. Even at that time it was assumed (as with H200) that some introduction before taking the lessons to the classroom was needed. The attention of developers was not focused on training, however, and so the activities conducted there did not look much like subsequent teacher training activities. On the first day, the teachers were introduced to the format of the Oral Language Program lessons. The attendees read the Introduction, Teacher Comments, and the UCLA Manual and discussed these with a SWCEL staff member. On the second day a SWCEL staff member demonstrated the teaching of a lesson, and the attendees thoroughly examined the content of the first three lessons. The SWCEL staff member then presented the linguistic content of the lessons. On the third day, the teaching of another lesson was demonstrated, and some instructions were given as to what changes teachers were or were not allowed to make in the lessons. As these teachers were conducting a design-test of lessons, they were also instructed in how to make notes and provide feedback to SWCEL.

Sanders Experiment

One teacher from Sanders, Arizona was brought to SWCEL for training in OLP, October 9-20, 1967. This two week period included training in behavior management; this aspect of the training will not be discussed here.

For OLP training, the teacher, working with one SWCEL staff member, familiarized herself thoroughly with the first nineteen lessons. This took from 8 – 11:30 A.M. every day for the first eight days. During the afternoons, the teacher practiced teaching lessons to and being taught by another staff member (paired practice). She also worked on a few phonetics exercises and did some reading on language and linguistics. On the last two days of the training period, Navajo children were brought to SWCEL. The teacher was video taped while teaching lessons to three or four children at a time. She and SWCEL staff watched and discussed the tapes; some of the lessons were then retaught to the children by a staff member for demonstration.

SWCEL's concern was with being certain the teacher could perform behaviors with children as she had been taught. Since this teacher was taking part in an experiment, it was crucial that she perform as required by the experiment. This emphasis on mastery of techniques forms the germ of all training conducted since then.

1968 Teacher Training

In January 1968, a set of objectives was written by SWCEL program developers for teacher training. This training was to take place in the summer of 1968, and represented SWCEL's first effort at systematic design of training. The teachers trained were to conduct the Integrated Plan Field Trial during the 1968-69 school year.

The actual objectives for OLP training written at that time are not of as much interest as their being written; between January 1968 and the time of the first institute, training content was added, and the activities to be carried out were articulated and planned.

The main training method proposed at this time was microteaching. The rationale and conduct of microteaching has not changed since 1968. The teachers were to get practice in teaching actual OLP lessons to real children, and demonstrate that they could properly teach the lessons before leaving the institute. Microteaching for OLP training included teaching a lesson to three or four children, watching a video tape of the lesson while discussing it with an instructor, and then teaching that same lesson to another three or four children. This is the basic TEACH-CONFERENCE-RETEACH cycle. In addition, each teacher taught another lesson to six to eight children, to better approximate the classroom situation (OLP group of six to ten children). This second lesson involved only TEACH-CONFERENCE.

Behaviors required of teachers had to be specific so that these could be evaluated and improved during training. This requirement led to the explicit articulation of four categories of OLP teaching techniques — reinforcement (shaping and maintaining responses), conventions, modeling, and correcting errors.[19] Appraisal Guides to cover these techniques were designed so that supervisors could record teacher behaviors during microteaching.

The 1968 Demonstration Center, or First Generation Institute, was held at SWCEL July 8-19. There were twenty two participants, two of them principals, the rest teachers who would help conduct Second Generation Institutes in their own districts. This two week institute included microteaching of the first ten OLP lessons. Each trainee had two opportunities to teach lessons: one with four children, the other with eight children. Other components of OLP training were the following:

- UCLA film ***Starting English Early***
- Introductory lecture on rating sheets (Appraisal Guides), together with an explanation and demonstration of the techniques, using slides. There was a kinescope on "Reinforcement"; "Modeling" and "Correcting Errors" were presented using the blackboard; "Conventions" were explained during the conference period of microteaching.
- paired practice of OLP lessons
- role-play of microteaching
- lecture on Teaching English as a Second Language by Robert D. Wilson
- lecture, live demonstration, and microteaching of pre lessons
- French lessons taught by Henry Pascual to demonstrate difficulties of entering an unknown language environment
- demonstrations on puppet use and puppet making by professional puppeteers
- a lecture-discussion on Standard English as a Second Dialect
- lecture on pronunciation lessons
- lecture on OLP checklists
- lecture-discussions on conducting Second Generation Institutes.

In addition all participants were given pre and post tests and asked to comment on the institute. Generally, comments were favorable, and included a number of useful suggestions.

Second Generation Institutes were held in August in all five districts from which the master teachers (First Generation Institute trainees) had come. Districts included a variety of training aspects. Some institutes included "home visits" in which participants spent two days in a local minority ethnic group home. Some included demonstrations on puppet use, some presented the taped Wilson lecture, one institute included a French lesson. All five institutes, however, included the film ***Starting English Early***, paired practice, microteaching and institute pre and post tests. (See Fig. 3 for a Second Generation Institute schedule.)

Generally, institute pre and post tests from the summer of 1968 showed that the Master Teachers had a higher entering score than the other attendees, but the gains were similar. The Second Generation Institutes were staffed by the Master Teachers from the district and four or five SWCEL staff members. The large number of SWCEL staff was necessary because procedures and materials sufficient for Master Teachers to teach other adults had not been developed yet.

Inservice meetings were conducted by SWCEL field consultants during the 1968-69 school year in the school districts. These meetings dealt primarily with teacher problems as they came up; there was no prescribed program of inservice meetings during the Integrated Plan Field Trial.

1969 Teacher Training

Several types of institutes were conducted during the summer of 1969. An innovation was an institute for professors interested in implementing the teaching of OLP as a preservice course. This institute was held at SWCEL in the early summer. First and Second Generation Institutes were conducted on a plan similar to summer 1968 training. However, experienced OLP teachers were brought to SWCEL for a three-day workshop on conducting a First Generation Institute. These teachers then conducted three different First Generation Institutes (at Tempe, Arizona; Alpine, Texas; and Gallup, New Mexico), with the help of a few SWCEL staff members. The Tempe Institute was a week long, while the other two were two weeks. These included a session on "How to be a Microteaching Supervisor" and how to run a local institute.

The Second Generation Institutes were generally four days long, and included as staff at least one experienced OLP teacher who had served as faculty at the First Generation Institutes, one or more SWCEL staff members, and the trainees from the First Generation Institutes.

In the summer of 1969 there were a few innovations for both First and Second Generation Institutes. Some presentations had been made "independent" of faculty. Thus, there was now a slide/tape on pre lessons, and one on Pronunciation lessons. There were also kinescopes to present all the OLP teaching techniques, and one on puppet use. In addition, some other material now was contained on printed scripts that could be referred to by faculty members. (For a sample schedule of a 1969 Second Generation Institute, see Fig. 4).

SCHEDULE FOR BERNALILLO

	SATURDAY 8-24	MONDAY 8-26	TUESDAY 8-27	WEDNESDAY 8-28	SATURDAY 8-31
8:30	**Welcome** Remarks – Film: "SWCEL Story"	**OLP** Micro-Teaching	**OLP** Micro-Teaching	**OLP** Micro-Teaching	**OLP** Micro-Teaching
9:30	Pre-testing SWCEL Staff				
10:00	**OLP** – Film: "Starting English Early" Lecture – Tape of Wilson Video-tape of Pre-Lessons Meet Children				Post-testing SWCEL Staff
11:00		**OLP** Discussion and OLP practice	**OLP** Discussion and OLP practice		**Classroom Management** Discussion
12:00	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH
1:00	**OLP** – Practice teach OLP with instructees	**Cultural Sensitivity** Film: "4 Families Part I" Discussion	**Behavioral Objectives** Lecture "Large Step, Large Reward – Small Step Small Reward"	**Reading** Lecture-Discussion Tape of Engleman	**Classroom Management** Discussion "Correlated Reinforcement"
2:00	**Ethno-Pedagogy** Slides – Cultural Film: "Family Life of the Navajo"	"Buffy St. Marie" "Desert Soliloquy"	Discussion	Lecture-Discussion	Discussion
3:00	Cultural Dynamics Film: "So That Men Are Free"	Discussion	**Classroom Management** Lecture – Discussion	Lecture-Discussion	Farewell on In-Service Training
4:00	**Home Variables** Discussions Slides of Home Visits				

Figure 3 Second Generation Institute, 1968

BLANDING, UTAH INSTITUTE

TIME	WEDNESDAY 8-20	THURSDAY 8-21	FRIDAY 8-22	SATURDAY 8-23
8:30	Opening Remarks and SWCEL Story	Paired practice Change Partners	Puppets in OLP (kine)	Small Group Learning Activities (slide tape) Discussion
9:00		OLP Tech. in depth-Reinf. (Kine)	Puppet with Mirrors	
9:30	Institute Pretest	MT – OLP Lesson 1 Teach – Reteach Reinforcement	Break	OLP – Tech. – Correction Errors (kine)
10:00	Starting English Early Film	Break	MT – OLP Lesson 4 Teach – Reteach Conventions	Break Paired Practice
10:30	Break Les. 17 from Mini-school (kine)	MT – OLP Lesson 2 Teach– Reteach Reinforcement	OLP – Tech. – Modeling (kine)	MT – OLP Lesson 7 Teach only – 8 children Correcting Errors
11:00	Intro. to Micro-Tech. (Trans.) Pre-lessons (slide-tape)	Break OLP – Tech. – conventions (kine)	Paired Practice MT – OLP lesson 5, Teach only 8 children Modeling	MT – OLP Lesson 8 Teach Correcting Errors
11:30	Pre-lessons (video) demon. Micro-teach dress rehearsal Meet Children	Paired Practice MT – OLP Lesson 3, Teach – Reteach Conventions	MT – OLP lesson 6, Teach only 8 children Modeling	Phonological Content of OLP (slide tape)
12:00	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH
1:00	Writing Behavioral Objective I (Transparencies)	Writing Behavioral Objective II (Transparencies)	Delay and Magnitude of Reward I	Institute Post-test
2:00	1) "Prescriptions for Failure" 2) "Feedback Loop"	Culture of Poverty	Delay and Magnitude of Reward II	Informal Assessment In-service Plans
3:00	OLP Teaching Technique (overview) (kine) Appraisal Guides (Transparencies)	Movie: "The Navajo" – A study in cultural constructs (Discussion)	Film: "Buffy St-Marie" (Discussion)	PARTING WORDS
4:00				

ATTENDEES: 12 Teachers
2 Teacher Aides

Figure 4 Second Generation Institute, 1969

The First and Second Generation Institutes discussed above were for teachers who would be using Mark I OLP during the 1969-70 school year. These institutes included pre and post tests for the participants; all Second Generation attendees were novice teachers who had never taught OLP before.

Institutes were held at Odessa, Texas and Bernalillo, New Mexico for teachers who would be using Mark II OLP during the 1969-70 school year. Many of the attendees were veterans of OLP, but some were novices. All were given the same training, as some of the training materials were new, and the lessons differed from Mark I sufficiently to warrant microteaching for the veterans as well as the novices. In addition, the Mark II content justified a lecture on pronunciation lessons rather than the slide/tape, which was geared to Mark I pronunciation. New Mark III content – Criterion Lessons, Progress Reports and Cultural Heritage Review Units – necessitated lectures on its use. (See Fig. 5 for a Mark II institute schedule). The faculty consisted of SWCEL staff members.

For the 1969-70 school year, a regular program of inservice meetings was scheduled for all Mark I districts. This program covered items that were not prerequisites for beginning OLP instruction in the fall. It also covered OLP rationale in the areas of Pronunciation, Syntax, and Lexicon. These meetings were conducted by the district Quality Assurance Specialists,[20] an innovation for the 1969-70 school year. The Mark II teachers held regular inservice meetings with a SWCEL Field Consultant, who usually conducted an informal discussion-type meeting, similar to those held during the 1968-69 school year.

1970 Teacher Training

A new approach to training was taken when one of the universities represented at the 1969 professor's institute, New Mexico State University in Las Cruces, adopted OLP training as preservice course content. The university staff adapted the training materials to its own needs, and the OLP continues to be taught to student interns at NMSU. The university's College of Education hosted an institute in January, 1971, for personnel from seven other universitites interested in similar programs.

Based on the experiences of the previous two summers, SWCEL was ready to attempt a final version of its OLP teacher training program. A number of factors needed to be taken into account. First, teacher training had to be "packaged" to be completely exportable. Second, faculty members with experience in teaching OLP and with the necessary qualifications for teaching adults had to be used. Third, firm decisions needed to be made as to what could be and had to be taught during the summer, and what should be left for fall or winter inservice meetings.

	MONDAY 8-11	TUESDAY 8-12	WEDNESDAY 8-13	THURSDAY 8-14	FRIDAY 8-15
8:30	Introductory Remarks	Pronunciation	Puppet Film Lesson 1-2	Film: Puppet Techniques	How to use a Progress Report e.g. PR. 10
9:00	Pre Test Assessment	Teach 2 Conference Re Teach 2	Teach 5 Conference Re Teach 5	Teach 7 Conference Re Teach 7	Teach 9
9:30	Opening Statement on OLP Mark II Live Demo Lesson I				Progress Report 10
10:00		Break	Break	Break	Teach 10
	Slide-tape on Pre Lesson	Teach 4 Re Teach 4	Teach 6 Conference Re Teach 6	Teach 8 Conference Re Teach 8	Revise Progress Report Discuss Prescription
10:30	Break	Film: Techniques Modeling & Correcting Errors			
	Talk – Mark I – Mark 11 Sample Lessons 3-13				
11:00		Prescription for Failure Feedback Loop	Self-Fulfilling Prophesy	Break	Break
	Paired Practice on 3-13 (Meeting with Special Sample Teachers) -2-			What is a Criterion Lesson? A Progress Report? How to use a PR?	Delay and Magnitude of Reward
12:00	Films: 1. Techniques – Overview 2. Convention – Reinforcement	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH
12:30 1:00	LUNCH	Pair Practice – RRR MT – RRR Numerical Concepts Lesson 8	Pair Practice – RRR MT – RRR Word Meaning Lesson 2	Pair Practice – RRR MT – RRR Aural Discrimination Lesson 48	Pair Practice MT – RRR Listening Lesson 63
1:30	Introduction to Reinforcement Strategies				
2:00	Reinforcement Strategies for Culturally Divergent Child	Break	OLP Cultural Heritage Lessons	Behavioral Objectives I	Break
		Pronunciation OLP Meeting with Special Sample Teachers 2			Institute Post Test
3:00	Break	Culture of Poverty	Break	Break	
	Content of RRR Program		Attributes of the Mexican American Film: Invisible Minority (if possible)	Behavioral Objectives II	
4:00	Applications of RRR Program				Informal Assessment Discussion of In-Service Plan
	Integration of RRR Program			Interactional Mechanisms of Defense	Parting Words
5:00					

Figure 5 Mark II Institute, 1969

In February 1970, therefore, a series of behavioral objectives for OLP teacher training were written.[21] Most of these were then turned into "packaged" activities which included instructions for the attendee, worksheets, and answer sheets. Each activity also included instructions for the faculty member (see sample activity, Appendix E.) Thus, the OLP Training Materials Faculty Member notebook included everything a faculty member at an institute needed to present all the activities. However, as many of these activities were new in execution if not in content, their presentation was taught at a one-week Master Teacher institute held at SWCEL in June 1970. Most attendees were OLP teachers, chosen on the basis of promise as faculty members at institutes. They practiced presenting various activities, and familiarized themselves with the rest. Each eventually received a complete ***OLP Training Materials Faculty Member Notebook*** to use at each institute where they served as faculty members. During this one week, they also had to become familiar with other programs – Reinforced Readiness Requisites (RRR), Teacher-Teacher Aide Companion Training and Quality Assurance. Unfortunately, microteaching supervision was dealt with only superficially. As a result of this 1970 experience, the 1971 Faculty Institute will probably be a two week one, and deal extensively with microteaching supervision.

Despite the short comings of the 1970 Master Teacher institute, the faculty members did an excellent job at all institutes. They exhibited much creativity in the use of the pre-packaged material; often their additional input added greatly to the success of the presentations. A large factor in their success was that they were all dedicated OLP teachers; they knew the program thoroughly. Also, the existence of detailed scripts and instructions facilitated improvements and innovations.

Some of the 1970 institutes were conducted entirely without SWCEL staff. One was planned and coordinated by a SWCEL Quality Assurance Specialist. Others were planned by SWCEL staff, but coordinated by outsiders. Even those both planned and coordinated by SWCEL staff were taught entirely by the master teachers – no SWCEL personnel gave any of the presentations.

A change from previous summers was that OLP training received a full five days time slot; in 1969 a few RRR + OLP institutes had been conducted in four days. That five days is necessary for OLP training is indicated by 1969 and 1970 institute feedback.

During the production of the 1970 teacher training materials, it was determined that OLP rationale should be introduced in fall meetings, after the teachers had had a chance to teach OLP. Feedback from 1969 institutes indicated that much of OLP rationale, e.g., the pronunciation slide/tape, could not be assimilated by teachers during a short summer institute. Thus, in the summer training, the attendees learned what they absolutely had to know to begin teaching OLP – techniques, puppet use, pre lessons, realia and so on. The first inservice meetings were to be on Extending OLP, Selecting Pupils for Activities, Syntax, Pronunciation, and Lexicon.

The content of teacher training for 1970 falls into two categories – revised presentations and new presentations. A brief look at each activity, together with some of the rationale for them, follows.

Revised presentations. *Microteaching.* The microteaching schedule remained the same except for the time left open to recycle attendees. After the first five lessons had been taught during the first five mircroteaching sessions (Round I), attendees watched a film and answered questions on techniques seen. This is the Post Microteaching Review Activity (PMRA). Those who did not meet criterion were recycled and taught one of the first five lessons again. Microteaching supervisors also had the option to recycle others whom they thought needed more practice in teaching. After recycle, each attendee taught one of the second set of five lessons. They were evaluated by the microteaching supervisor, who used Appraisal Guides. A criterion was established for this second round of microteaching.[22]

Pre lessons. The slide tape on pre lessons was used, and attendees taught pre-lessons (together with a faculty member) so that they could see themselves on video before beginning microteaching. An addition was a questionnaire teachers were to fill out about the pre lesson manual. Primarily., the purpose was to make certain the attendees had read the manual.

OLP techniques. To show the OLP teaching techniques, four slide presentations and one activity with an audio tape were used. The four silent slide presentations (Reinforcement, Conventions, Modeling and Correcting Errors) replaced the 1969 kinescopes on techniques. As a result of feedback from 1969-70 Field Trial teachers, a new category of techniques – Evoking Questions – was proposed and added by the second author.[23] This was presented by a lecture and audio-tape. In several institutes, the faculty members role-played the techniques.

Puppets. The kinescope on puppet use was shown again. Attendees at 1968 and 1969 institutes had indicated a desire to practice using puppets, and this opportunity was provided during 1970 institutes in the activities "PUPPETS: Silent Communication" and "Model Conversation."[24]

New presentations. *OLP Overview.* The film "Starting English Early" was replaced in 1970 institutes by a short introductory lecture on OLP using transparencies, and an OLP lesson on film (OLP "Gestalt" Film).

Pronunciation. The use of the Pronunciation slide/tape at institutes was discontinued, as it stressed pronunciation rationale rather than the actual teaching of pronunciation lessons. Institute attendees had indicated that they wanted to know how to conduct the lessons, and could not assimilate rationale before they had actually taught in the classroom. Thus, activities were designed to give teachers practice in teaching lessons, but also to try to present rationale for some of the techniques peculiar to pronunciation lessons. These activities were "Analog Pronunciation Activity," "Matching Analog," and "Orthographic Conventions on Language Master Cards."

Grouping decisions. Although the OLP teacher's manual includes suggestions for grouping children for lessons, some teachers do not read the manual; others had expressed a desire for more help. Consequently, an exercise was designed to help teachers make decisions in this area.

Realia. During the 1969-70 school year, many teachers had problems in organizing the toys and other materials used in lessons, and in obtaining additional ones not supplied by SWCEL. A slide/tape was prepared which shows teachers how to deal with this problem, and two exercises were designed to give teachers ideas on how to obtain and plan for the use of the materials. (See Appendix).

Teacher's manual. Toward the end of the institute, there was an exercise consisting of questions on the teacher's manual, designed to ascertain whether the attendees had read it, or at least knew what information it contained.

Criterion lessons. This was the only activity necessitated by changes in the format and content of lessons. Criterion Lessons were not contained in the Mark I version; they were present in Mark II, but had an accompanying Progress Report. Progress Reports were discontinued (see p. 81), but the teachers needed to be taught how to use Criterion Lessons.

The above activities now make up an OLP institute (see sample schedule, Fig. 6). Paired practice is one activity that has remained the same from 1968. There were no institute pre and post tests given in 1970. This reflects the nature of the 1970 activities – many included short quizzes; also, the previous institute test had been largely a test on OLP rationale.

The evaluation of these activities from the summer of 1970 has resulted in some changes. Such changes primarily deal with defects in the presenta-

GALLUP INSTITUTE

(First Week)

	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
8:30	Introduction SWCEL Overview	OLP Techniques Reinforcement Evoking Questions Conventions	OLP Paired Practice	Pron. Explain Language Master Activity	Cross Cultural Encounter (Entire Day)
9:00	OLP Overview OLP "Gestalt" Film		Micro-teaching #1 Reinforcement	Micro-teaching #3 Modeling	
10:00	Break	Break	Break	Break	
10:15	OLP Pre-lessons Pre-lessons on T.V. with children	RRR Content Slide tape Discussion Transparencies	Micro-teaching #2 Conventions	Micro-teaching: #4 Evoking Questions	
	Pre-lessons, study Worksheet Exercise	OLP – Film – Puppet Use in OLP	OLP Techniques Modeling	OLP Techniques Correcting Errors	
12:00	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	
1:00	RRR Theory and Rationale	OLP Puppets Model Conversation	Field Trip Zuni Pueblo	Panel Discussion	
2:00	RRR Role Playing I	CCC Introduction Greek Presentation Media Lecture		Buffy Saint Marie Film	
2:45	Break	Break		Break	
3:00	RRR Role Playing I	CCC Media Lecture		Discussion of Buffy Film	
4:00	Reading Assignments Reinforcement Evoking Questions Conventions				
		Reading Assignment Modeling	Reading Assignment Correcting Errors	Reading Assignment	
4:30					

Figure 6 Mark III Institute, 1970

GALLUP INSTITUTE

(Second Week)

	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
8:30 9:00	Micro-teaching: #5 Correcting Errors	Micro-teaching: Re-cycle	G-McK Oral English Capacity Test	Micro-teaching: #8	Micro-teaching: #10
			Micro-teaching: #6		Criterion Lessons Reading Consensus
10:00	Break	Break	Break	Break	Break
10:15	Post M-T Review Film Fill out PMRA	OLP Analog Pronunciation Activity	Micro-teaching: #7	Micro-teaching: #9	Inservice Feedback
	Grouping Decisions Simulated Grouping Assessment Steps	OLP Matching Analog	Interest Centers "First 10 Days"	Cultural Heritage Lessons	
12:00	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH
1:00	RRR Overview Slide/tape Transparencies	CCC Desert Soliloquy	"Living With Words" (Slide Show – overview) Thinker Talk – Show and Tell	OLP Realia a) slide/tape b) planning exercise c) obtaining materials	
2:00	Gallup-McKinley Oral Language Science Program	OLP Techniques Appraisal Guides Items 6, 7, 8	What is Quality Assurance?	OLP Teacher's Manual Exercise	
2:45	Break	Break	Break	Break	Break
3:00	CCC Role Play T.V. Self Confrontation	RRR Procedures Film Paired Practice	Experience Center Talk Slide Show "Kitchen Center"	Thinker Construction "Memory in Flannel" "Geometric Shapes"	
4:00	Reading Assignment Appraisal Guides		Reading Assignments Criterion Lessons Realia	"27 Astronauts"	
4:30					

Figure 4, continued

tions and exercises, not in the content of what is presented. Experience and feedback from 1967 through 1970 indicated that the present institute training materials are what is necessary and sufficient for teachers to begin using the Oral Language Program in the fall; inservice meetings cover the rest of OLP training.

Summary of Important Developmental Decisions

En route from the receipt of H200 materials to the advanced stages of development of the Oral Language Program, several decisions were made. These decisions may or may not have been recognized as pivotal when made, and may or may not have been documented. In some cases, a choice of one alternative may have seemed like no choice at all; other options seemed not to exist or to be unacceptable. Some decisions identified now as important are listed below. For the most part they are not discussed here; the context in which they were made and aspects of the rationale involved in a particular choice have been presented in other parts of the present paper.

1) To undertake the re-engineering of an already designed program in English as a second language at the elementary level. Of the numerous alternatives, one relevant here would have been the *de novo* development of a program. This decision was considered and made in early 1967. See page 5 for relevant discussion.

2) To address the Oral Language Program to several ethnic (and linguistic) groups. This decision was reached in middle and late 1967. For discussion, see page 31.

3) To concentrate re-engineering efforts upon the lessons and upon training. An alternative would have been to take the lessons as given and work on curricular extensions beyond lessons.* This decision was made in late 1967 and early 1968.

4) To produce an instructional system built upon one year of daily lessons. This decision had several peaks of attention, but was probably most firmly fixed in the Spring and Summer of 1968. For discussion, see page 5. The suggestion in the 1970 *Basic Program*

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* This path was taken in the work done by the Region One Educational Service Center in Edinburg, Texas, to develop the Region One Curriculum Kit. The Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory's work in Teacher/Teacher Aide Companion Training is most relevant to extension beyond lessons, but may be conceived primarily as a training effort.

Plan[16] to re-engineer OLP for use with three and four year olds bears on the arguments on this decision.

5) To design and conduct pre-installation (summer) teacher training, with heavy emphasis upon the microteaching[17] format. This direction was proposed and taken in the first half of 1968. See pp. 49 for discussion.

6) To disseminate Mark I OLP widely, although further revision of the program was foreseen. This decision reflects the recurrence of two pressures on the Laboratory: to conduct deliberate and systematic product development, and to have an appreciable and rapid impact upon education. The most pertinent period for this decision was the Spring of 1969.[18] For related discussion, see page 34.

7) To produce a Mark II version of OLP, with certain new components, such as Cultural Heritage Review Units. This decision grew primarily from experiences in school year 1968-69, and was settled upon in the early months of 1969. The Mark III (and final) version produced subsequently was almost identical to Mark II, and followed from the same decision. See page 39 for pertinent remarks.

8) To revamp the design and procedures for conducting teacher training in the use of the Oral Language Program. This decision was reached in January 1970, and reflected the demands for exportability in training that were intensified by the impending marketing of the program. For discussion, see page 49.

Decisions about the development of the Oral Language Program are inseparable from the general institutional growth of SWCEL: they are treated separately here for convenience only. Likewise, developments of other SWCEL programs have influenced and have been influenced by the history of the Oral Language Program.*

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*See also ***Progress Report on the Reinforced Readiness Requisites Program*** by Madeleine Speiss, and ***Progress Report on the Teacher/Teacher Aide Companion Training Program*** by Donna Peck (Albuquerque: Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, Inc., 1971).

Footnotes

1. *Contractor's Request for Continued Funding*, p. 1-5.

2. Paul J. Liberty, Jr., and John J. Seaberg, Jr., *Effectiveness of the Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory Oral English Language Program* (Las Vegas, Nevada: paper presented to the Twelfth Annual Workshop in Reading Research, 1969).

3. Robert T. Reeback and Robert Ebert, *Secondary Vigilance Task: A Method for Measuring and Manipulating Classroom Attention* (San Francisco: paper presented to the American Psychological Association, 1968).

4. Ibid.

5. Vivian Horner, Pre-lessons: *An Introductory Sequence of Lessons to Accompany an Oral Language Program* (Albuquerque Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, Inc., 1968).

6. Robert T. Reeback *An Entry Skills Training Program for a Head Start Class* (Albuquerque: paper written for Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, 1968).

7. Robert T. Reeback, *A Teacher's Manual to Accompany the Oral Language Program*, 1st ed. (Albuquerque: Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, 1968), pp. 3-4.

8. Reeback, *Teacher's Manual*, 1st ed., p. ii.

9. *The Integrated Plan* (Albuquerque: Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, undated).

10. *Demonstration Center School District Selection criteria* (Albuquerque: Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, 1968).

    and

    Demonstration Center Teacher Selection Criteria (Albuquerque: Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, 1968)

11. Leslie Lewis, Michael Clark, Max Luft and Janice Lujan, *Process Evaluation Using a Quality Assurance Model* (Albuquerque: Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, 1971).

12. Roger Shuy, letter to Robert Reeback and Mavis Martin, August 26, 1969.

13. Roger Shuy, Ralph Fasold and Walter Wolfram. ***Report on the Oral Language Program*** (Washington, D.C.: unpublished report by the Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969).

14. Robert T. Reeback, memo to Jim Olivero, Irvin Nikolai and Guy Watson, 1970.

15. Robert Ebert and Denise Heller, ***Guidelines for the Use of the Cultural Heritage Teaching Package*** (Albuquerque: Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, 1971).

16. ***Basic Program Plan: Communication Arts Program*** (Albuquerque: Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, 1970) pp.47.

17. James L. Olivero, ***Micro-Teaching: Medium for Improving Instruction*** (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1970).

18. James L. Olivero, ***Developing the Oral Language Program*** (Albuquerque: Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, 1969).

19. Reeback, ***Teacher's Manual***, 1st and 3rd edition, pp. 14-16.

20. Lewis et. al.

21. Robert T. Reeback, ***Design of Teacher Training in the Use of an Oral Language Program, Objectives of Training.*** (Albuquerque, Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, 1970).

22. ***Oral Language Program Training Materials – Faculty Member*** (Albuquerque: Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, 1970), pp. S-W

23. Reeback, ***Teacher's Manual***, 3rd ed., p. 16.

24. ***Oral Language Program Training Materials***, p. 18.

CHAPTER III

1969-1970 FIELD ACTIVITIES

Purpose

During the 1969-70 school year, the Oral Language Program was tested in the field for three primary reasons:

1) **Identification of conditions in which the program is successful.** Pre- and post course performance of children who differed with respect to certain initial characteristics and with respect to curriculum exposure during the school year were compared.

2) **Comparison of pupils receiving the Oral Language Program with pupils not receiving it.** Pre and post course performances of a group receiving OLP were compared to pre and post school year performance of a group not receiving OLP. The two groups were matched as closely as possible in terms of entering characteristics.

3) **Determination of necessary revisions in both the program and teaching strategies.** Guidelines for refinements in components of the program, especially the assessment system and teacher training were sought.

Instrument

The instrument used to assess the effectiveness of the Oral Language Program has a history that parallels the development of the program itself.

The Michael Test

The Test of Oral English Production, Levels Ia and Ib, was designed by Lois Michael for use as an achievement, placement, and diagnostic instrument with the ESL program Teaching English Early (H200). It measures a child's competence in English structures, pronunciation, vocabulary, and communication. Level Ia covers the material that is "typically met by children during their initial ESL experience,"[1] and spans the first semester of the first year (of the H200 program). The total score is made up as follows:

Communication	71
Structure	75
Vocabulary	51
Pronunciation	27
Total	224

The test is entirely oral, administered individually and tape recorded. It is scored from the tape. Fifty one visuals and a variety of objects are used to help elicit responses. The manual contains step-by-step instructions for the examiner. Items 3 - 29 measure pronunciation and vocabulary. If the child does not know a word, the examiner says it for him to repeat, so that for each item the child does not know as ***vocabulary***, he can still score for ***pronunciation***. Items 30-98 measure communication and structure, and a few additional vocabulary. Some of these items have "branches" to be used if the initial test stimulus is not understood or if the response is not complete. The English structure covered by the test includes the simple declarative sentence, WHAT questions, YES/NO questions, and the use of personal pronouns, articles, prepositions and the verb "to be."

Level Ib covers the second semester of the first year (of the H200 program.) The test format is exactly the same as for Level Ia. Level Ib was not used by SWCEL at any time to test children.

Lois Michael claimed reliability for the test on the basis of 98.5% for pre and 97% for post tests, using the split-half formula (N=100). She also administered the test to thirty native English speaking first grade children as a measure of content validity. She stated that all the children had a score of 99 – 100% of the total possible points.

Revision of the Michael Test

In the Spring of 1969 SWCEL decided to revise the Michael Test. There were several objections to the Michael Test. Since the test is supposed to measure ***primarily*** structure and pronunciation (according to Lois Michael), the amount of points given for "communication" seemed inconsistent (32%). The same problem existed with vocabulary. Also, the category "communication" is undefinable. Many of the visuals confused the children. Some of the "branches" in the structure section "gave away" the answer – all the child had to do was repeat exactly what he'd just heard. Other "branches" almost never elicited the desired resonse. The method used to elicit questions usually did not result in correct responses, even with native English speaking children. The scoring system did not seem fair or consistent.

In terms of content, Level Ia of the Michael Test did not cover all of the material in the Oral Language Program, and Level Ib covered more than is included in the OLP. Attempting to use both tests as a pre and post test for OLP classrooms would have been prohibitive in terms of time and cost. The pronunciation items were not the areas of most interest to SWCEL. Many of the structure items are duplicated unnecessarily.

In the revision process SWCEL attempted several things: to increase the intrinsic interest of the content, to shorten the test by eliminating redundant items and unnecessary categories, to improve the scoring, and to provide stimulus situations that would make it easier to cue the children on the desired response.

The SWCEL Test of Oral English Production

The SWCEL Test covers the content of the 150 lessons of the Oral Language Program. It is intended as an achievement and diagnostic instrument, but is not used for placement *within* the program. The emphasis is on the production of grammatically accurate complete sentences, with some attention given also to pronunciation and vocabulary. The total score is made up as follows:

Vocabulary		24
Pronunciation		31
Structure	a	171
	b	(114)
	c	(144)
	d	(57)
Total Possible		226

For most of the vocabulary and pronunciation sections, toys are used rather than pictures to minimize confusing art work. Five pictures, used to elicit the sentences in the test, are included. In no case did these pictures confuse the children.

The structure subscores reflect the emphasis on spontaneously produced complete sentences as follows:

Structure a: Maximum spontaneous. – Child scores three points for spontaneously producing a grammatically accurate complete sentence.

Structure b: Minimal prompted. – Child scores two points for producing a grammatically accurate complete sentence after prompting.

Structure c: Minimum spontaneous. – Child scores two points for spontaneously producing an accurate short form answer.

Structure d: Minimum prompted. – Child scores one point for producing an accurate short form answer.

The weakest parts of the revision are still the methods of prompting and eliciting questions. The prompt used is consistent – it is the same for all questions – but it gives away the answer so the child only has to echo. To a degree, this disadvantage is mitigated by the fact that less points are given for an echoed answer than a spontaneous one. In addition, it is generally the case that children who speak very little English are not able even to echo the answer correctly, and thus their scores do *not* rise because of this chance to echo. Generally, the children who echo correctly have already produced a correct short form answer, and they would receive the two points anyway. As for eliciting questions, the method used does not often result in the children asking the questions. SWCEL has not been able to devise a better method for the testing situation as yet.

Reliability was established by the split-half and test-retest methods. Analysis of the scores of 72 pupils gave a reliability of .92, using the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula of the split-halves correlation. The test-retest reliability with 10 pupils (a week's duration between the tests) gave a correlation of .91.

Correlation of the SWCEL test with the original Michael Test (N=22) was .74. There was a duration of one week between the two tests.

Procedure

Three types of classrooms during the 1969-70 school year correspond to the three different aims of evaluation outlined above.

1. **Evaluating conditions of success.**

   The Mark I version of the Oral Language Program (developed during 1967 and 1968) was installed in approximately 170 classrooms. The majority of the teachers had not used the OLP prior to the 1969-70 school year.

   The SWCEL Test of Oral English Production was used to measure pre- and post course performance. A 10% random sample of children in the 170 classrooms received the SWCEL Test at the beginning and end of the school year. In addition, data was collected on sex, grade, ethnic affiliation, percentage of non-Anglo children in the school, and the number of lessons each child completed.

   Content tests were administered to the children at regular intervals. All teachers were observed regularly by their Quality Assurance Specialist who filled out an observation schedule each time. (These observation schedules were designed to tell SWCEL whether the teacher was using the OLP techniques he had been taught, whether he was using Content Test results to prescribe review, and whether the teaching pace was within reasonable, pre-determined limits.)

Teachers were asked to fill out an end-of-the-year questionnaire designed to elicit their attitudes about SWCEL programs and opinions of program effectiveness, as well as some biographical information.

2. **Comparing OLP pupils with non-OLP pupils.**

The Mark II version of the Oral Language Program, developed in 1969, was installed in 31 classrooms designated for summative evaluation. Fourteen classrooms where OLP was not installed were chosen for controls. A 20% random sample of children in both OLP and non-OLP classes took the SWCEL Test at the beginning and end of the school year. The teachers in the OLP classrooms were observed by a field consultant from SWCEL, who filled out observation schedules.

Teachers filled out the same end-of-the-year questionnaire as did teachers in Mark I classes.

3. **Determining revisions.**

The Mark II version of the Oral Language Program also was installed in five classrooms designated for formative evaluation. The five teachers were in weekly contact with an OLP program person at SWCEL. The teachers reported their experiences with OLP in detail. In addition, they recorded on tape each Criterion Lesson and sent the tapes and Progress Reports to SWCEL. All the children in these classes received the Michael Test* at the beginning and end of the school year.

Findings

Field Test, Mark I. Conditions of Success.

Primary data. SWCEL recommends that only children whose knowledge of English is judged to be less than adequate to do grade work receive the OLP. Through an examination of SWCEL test tapes and scores, and comparison of scores with judgments of language ability, reliable statements can be made about specific ranges of SWCEL test scores. The range of scores on the SWCEL test is 0-226. Children who score less than 100 have very little or no knowledge of English. A score between 100-130 indicates that the child has some English ability, but not enough to deal with required classroom work. Children who score in the 130-170 range are not fluent speakers of "standard" English, but their knowledge of English is usually adequate for beginning school work. A score above 170 indicates that the child can speak fluent English. Thus, children who score below 130 are judged to need the Oral Language Program. The test data reported in Table 2 include only such children.

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* The decision was made to administer the Michael Test rather than the Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory Test since the latter was still in the design-test stage.

Table 2. SWCEL Test Scores, Mark I Total.

	Pre Test		Post Test		Gain
N	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	$\bar{x}$
440	93.4	28.0	137.6	30.7	44.2

Note that the mean pre test score is below 100. In actual figures, 213, or almost half of the 440 children in the sample spoke no English or almost none when they came to school (had pre test scores less than 100). On the other hand, the mean post test score is over 130, suggesting that a majority of the children now have an adequate, if not fluent, knowledge of English. In actual figures, 262 children scored above 135 on the SWCEL post test and 323 children scored above 125.

The mean gain score as seen above was 44.2. Examination of the SWCEL pre and post test scores of various children has indicated that a gain of 30 points is acceptable in terms of program objectives.

The results by sex are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. SWCEL Test Scores by Sex, Mark I.

		Pre test		Post Test		Gain
	N	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	$\bar{x}$
Boys	236	91.5	29.0	135.3	31.4	43.8
Girls	204	95.7	26.6	140.2	30.0	44.5

Boys score lower than girls, but the gain scores are similar.*

Table 4 includes the results by grade.

The random sample requirement was not met in 1969-70 for various reasons. Therefore, tests of significance were not done on any of the data.

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*The random sample requirement was not met in 1969-70 for various reasons. Therefore, tests of significance were not done on any of the data.

Table 4. SWCEL Test Scores by Grade, Mark I.

Grade	N	Pre test $\overline{X}$	Pre test S.D.	Post test $\overline{X}$	Post test S.D.	Gain $\overline{X}$
Kindergarten	102	86.8	31.5	128.2	32.8	41.4
First Grade	338	95.4	26.6	140.4	29.5	45.0

Although kindergarten children score lower than first grade and also have somewhat lower gain scores, there is no indication that the program is less effective for kindergarten than first grade. Younger children can be expected to score somewhat lower than older ones within the same population; the gain scores for both groups of children is high enough to testify to the effectiveness of the OLP for both kindergarten and first grade age groups.

The scores for different ethnic groups appear in Table 5.

Table 5. SWCEL Test Scores by Ethnic Group, Mark I.

Ethnic Group	N	Pre test $\overline{X}$	Pre test S.D.	Post test $\overline{X}$	Post test S.D.	Gain $\overline{X}$
Anglo	37	111.9	16.0	146.2	26.8	34.3
Negro	19	108.9	15.7	160.8	20.0	51.9
Spanish	245	93.3	27.6	139.8	27.2	46.5
Indian	135	86.2	29.7	127.5	35.8	41.3
Other	4	102.0	22.1	148.0	19.0	46.0

The applicability of the OLP with different ethnic groups has been of interest since the beginning of its development (see page 8).

As the chart shows, Indian children scored lower on the SWCEL test than did Spanish speaking children and they obtained somewhat lower gain scores as well. However, OLP was judged successful with both groups since the mean gain score for both was over 40 points.

The Anglo and Black children were a special case. When tested at the beginning of the school year, Anglo and Black children obtain scores above 130 on the SWCEL test. Thus, they are not as a rule judged to need OLP. Nevertheless, there were 37 Anglo and 19 Black children who fell into the sample because they scored under 130 on the SWCEL test. Unfortunately, the other ways (if any), that these children differ from the average Anglo or Black child entering school are not known. It remains to be investigated whether such children evince a real language deficiency, slow language development, shyness, or some other characteristic that results in low scores on the SWCEL pre test. However, it should be noted that the Anglo children had an acceptable mean gain score, and the Black children had a high one; evidently some Anglo and Black children can be helped by OLP.

Table 6 shows the results by number of lessons completed during the school year.

Table 6. SWCEL Test Scores by Number of Lessons Completed, Mark I.

Lessons Completed	N	Pre test $\bar{x}$	Pre test S.D.	Post test $\bar{x}$	Post test S.D.	Gain $\bar{x}$
1-50	82	100.5	24.9	133.7	28.2	33.2
51-65	56	88.0	31.5	123.2	39.5	35.2
66-80	62	98.2	25.8	139.0	26.4	40.8
81-95	64	90.8	26.6	134.4	29.3	43.6
96-110	48	88.4	31.4	136.1	29.1	47.7
111-147	127	92.2	27.9	148.3	27.5	56.1

There is no discernible trend in pre test scores, although they are different for each group. If it is hypothesized that the less English the children know at the outset the slower they have to go through the lessons, then the SWCEL pre test scores would be lowest for the group that only had 1-50 lessons, next lowest for the group that had 51-65 lessons, and so on. The mean pre test scores in Table 6 indicate that 1) the amount of English known at the outset is not the major determiner of how many lessons are completed, and 2) children who know very little or no English *can* complete the entire program during one school year. As the figures show, 60 of the 127 children who completed from 111-147 lessons had pre test means under 100.

Figures in the gain score column show that the more OLP lessons completed, the higher the gain score. This is a result that would be expected. However, the factors that were instrumental in enabling some teachers to complete most of the lessons, while others only completed less than 50 are not known. Although one factor *could* be the amount of English known at the outset, it is certainly not the only one. Further investigation is needed, perhaps in the areas of curriculum competition and in teacher's attitudes and abilities.

When less than 50 lessons were completed, the mean gain score was still over 30. Note that even though this is an acceptable gain, there are many aspects of English that these children did not get a chance to cover. But the gain scores indicate that covering one third or less of the material in OLP is better than no OLP at all.

The results by percentage of non-Anglo pupils in the school are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. SWCEL Test Scores by Percent of Non-Anglos in the School, Mark I.

Percent Non-Anglo	N	Pre test		Post test		Gain
		$\bar{x}$	S.D.	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	$\bar{x}$
0-25	8	118.6	11.0	151.1	18.2	32.5
26-50	7	104.3	27.0	154.6	33.1	50.3
51-75	108	102.9	22.6	142.4	30.5	39.5
76-100	317	89.4	28.9	135.2	30.7	45.8

Assuming that a large majority of non-Anglos is associated with a non-English speaking population (and therefore little exposure to English outside of school), the pre test scores should fall as the percentage of non-Anglos in the school rises. This is in fact the case; but can only be stated as a trend, as the N's of the first two levels of the variable are too small. For this reason too, nothing can be said about the gain scores. In the other two levels of the variable, the gain score is higher for the group with the higher percentage of non-Anglos.

Content Tests. The results of Content Tests have yet to be investigated. Of the six Content Tests, all teachers reached #1 (given after Lesson 24). There was a steadily diminishing number of teachers reaching #2 through #6. However, of these teachers who reached each test, a high percentage returned the tests.

Table 8 shows the rate of return.

Table 8. Percent of Teachers Returning Content Tests #1-6, Mark I

Test Number	Returned	
	N	Percent
1	138	77
2	139	85
3	105	89
4	74	89
5	38	93
6	14	74

Observation schedules. The Quality Assurance program was design tested during the 1969-70 school year and the reliability of the OLP observation schedules that the Quality Assurance Specialists filled out had not been established; these schedules had not been analyzed at this writing.

End-of-the-year questionnaire. One hundred twelve of 170 (66%) teachers returned the questionnaires. Part I of the questionnaire dealt with teachers' views of the materials and the training program. Most teachers (over 75%) were satisfied with the materials and with the training program (summer institutes and school year in-service meetings). Part II dealt with teachers' experiences with the program in the classroom. Generally, OLP lessons were popular with children. Teacher opinion seems to favor the social aspects of the program above content merits. Thus, in response to question number 14, "The effect of the OLP on the children is . . .," 75% of the respondants said that "they overcome shyness and are not reluctant to speak," and about 66% said that "they consider OLP an enjoyable activity," while only 28% said that "they learn English fast."

Biographical information on teachers shows that 71% were over thirty, 71% were Anglo, 64% had more than five years teaching experience, 71% had had most of their teaching experience with first and pre first grade children.

The teachers' estimates of the socio-economic status of their children's families placed the great majority in the unemployed, agricultural and unskilled urban labor categories. Twenty eight teachers reported that they had no children who spoke no English at the beginning of the school year, while five reported that all their children were non-speakers.

Several variables were correlated with teacher receptivity to OLP as measured by whether the teacher would or would not drop the program. Previous experience with ESL programs was not an important factor in influencing teacher opinion of the program. In the case of both ESL and non-ESL experienced teachers, 85% would not have dropped the program. On the other hand, age seems to be an important variable. Table 9 shows the results by age group.

Table 9. Age as a Determinant of Teacher Opinion
Would you drop the program?

Age Range	Definitely Not		Probably Not		Probably		Already did		Total
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
Under 25	4	36	3	27	4	36	0	0	11
25-30	7	41	5	29	2	12	3	18	17
30-40	12	60	6	30	1	5	1	5	20
40-50	18	67	6	22	3	11	0	0	27
50 +	12	71	5	29	0	0	0	0	17
Total	53	57	25	27	10	11	4	4	92

The trend is that the older the teacher, the less likely that he would or did drop the program. Thus, 34% of those under thirty, 10% of those between 30 and 50, and none of those over 50 would or did drop it.

Educational background also seems to have some bearing on how teachers felt about the program. Only 13% of those with a BA or BA plus some graduate work said that they would or did drop the program. But 27% of those with an MA or an MA plus some additional graduate work said that they would or did drop the program.

Ethnic affiliation of the teacher also may be important. Thus, 100% (N = 6) of the Indian teachers, 85% (N = 64) of the Anglo teachers, 71% (N = 7) of the Negro teachers and 66% (N = 9) of the Spanish and Mexican-American teachers would keep OLP. These figures at present can only be considered suggestive since the Ns for all but Anglos are very small and the representative status of the sample is unclear.

The amount of teaching experience correlates with opinion of the program the same way that age does – the more experience, the more favorable. This is undoubtedly because the teachers with more experience are the oldest.

The type of teaching experience shows some difference. Eighteen percent (N = 49) of those with primarily first and pre-first grade experience would or did drop the program, while 27% (N = 11) of those with mostly second grade and up experience would or did drop it. Class size as a variable shows an interesting trend. Seventy-seven percent (N = 11) of the teachers with 20 or less children, 85% (N = 48) of those with between 20 and 30 children, and 95% (N = 18) of those with over 30 children would keep the program. Hence, as class size increases, the teachers are more likely to want to keep OLP.

A few correlations between teachers' and children's reaction to OLP, and the percentage of non-speakers of English in the class, were made.

Thirty-three percent (N - 69) of the teachers who had 0-30% nonspeakers of English, 65% (N = 19) of those who had 31-70% non-speakers, and 73% (N = 19) of those who had 71-100% non-speakers were very favorable to OLP. Thus, the more non-speakers a teacher had, the better he liked the program.

The children's reaction to OLP did not depend on how many non-speakers of English there were in the class, however. Table 10 shows the reaction (as reported by the teachers) of children to OLP according to percent of non-speakers in the class.

Table 10. Proportion of Non-speakers of English in the Class as Determinant of Children's Opinions (as reported by teachers)

Non-speakers in class, in %	Like OLP very much or were mildly enthusiastic		Were indifferent or bored		Total Number of classes
	N	%	N	%	
0 - 30	61	88	8	11	69
31 - 70	17	94	1	6	18
71 - 100	21	90	2	8	23

Thus, about 90% of the children liked OLP, whatever their level of English ability.

On the other hand, the indications are that children's opinion does depend on teacher opinion. Thus, if the teacher liked the program or was even mildly in favor of it, he reported that between 2-12% of the children were indifferent or bored. However, if the teacher disliked the program, 43% of the children were reported indifferent or bored.

Summative Classrooms, Mark II. Comparing OLP Pupils With Non-OLP Pupils

As in the previous evaluation, the data included only children who were judged to need the program. Table 11 shows the results.

Table 11. SWCEL Test Scores for OLP and Non-OLP Children, Mark II

		Pre test		Post test		Gain
	N	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	$\overline{X}$
OLP	46	108.6	16.7	150.8	18.3	42.2
Non-OLP	49	104.1	23.9	123.4	27.0	19.3

The mean gain scores for the two groups are not close; thus the findings suggest a positive OLP effect. Note that the non-OLP group did not reach the acceptable gain score of 30 points.

In addition to these Mark II data, Mark I classrooms contained a small group of children that met the criteria for entering the OLP program but did not receive it. These children were pre and post tested, however. Their scores are compared with the scores of Mark I OLP children in Table 12.

Table 12. SWCEL Test Scores for OLP and Non-OLP Children, Mark I

		Pre test		Post test		Gain
	N	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	$\overline{X}$
OLP	440	93.4	28.0	137.6	30.7	44.2
Non-OLP	19	116.9	13.0	134.5	34.3	17.6

Again, these findings suggest a positive OLP effect. Note the similarity between Mark II and Mark I OLP children in mean gain scores – 42.2 and 44.2 respectively. In contrast both groups of non-OLP children obtained gain scores lower than 30; however, these were also similar for the two groups – 19.3 and 17.6.

Aspects of the 1970-71 field trials have been designed to elaborate and expand these findings.

Determining Revisions. Formative Classrooms, Mark II

Two of the five formative classrooms were in New Mexico, two in Texas and one in Arizona. Of the New Mexico classrooms, one was composed of a majority of Mexican American children, with a few Anglos. The other had only Pueblo Indian children. One of the Texas classrooms had mainly Mexican American children, some of whom had come from Mexico within three or four months of the start of school. The other was composed of half Mexican American and half Black children. These four classrooms were first grade. The Arizona classroom consisted of two kindergarten groups one morning and one afternoon. Each group had about two-thirds Mexican-American children and one-third Anglo, with a few Yaqui Indian children in each. The children in these classes received the Michael Test, antecedent of the SWCEL Test. On the Michael Test, scores of less than one-hundred indicate little or no English, 100 - 150, inadequate English for grade work. (The top score possible is 224.) Thus, the criterion for entrance to OLP on the Michael Test is a score of less than 150.

The Mexican American classroom in New Mexico only had four children who met the entrance requirements. The teacher had taught OLP previously, and considered that many more than these four could benefit from it. Consequently, she taught OLP to all the children. However, school district curriculum advisors did not agree, and the teacher stopped OLP with Lesson 29.

The Pueblo Indian classroom in New Mexico had 11 children out of 22 who needed OLP according to pre test scores. The teacher, also a veteran, taught OLP to all the children for the whole school year.

In the Mexican American classroom in Texas, 22 children (out of a total of 29) qualified for OLP. The teacher, a veteran of OLP, divided her class into three groups according to the children's initial English ability.

The teacher with half Mexican American and half Black children was also a veteran. She had one OLP group with only Mexican American children and another with only black. Eight of her 14 Mexican American children qualified for OLP, but only one of her eight Black children did. (The teacher thought that this child should be in Special Education, as he had many problems besides a language deficit.)

In the Arizona morning class, 17 of 23 children qualified for OLP, and in the afternoon 21 of 33 children did. The teacher, who had not taught OLP before, did not include her Anglo children in OLP. She began by having two OLP groups in each class. However, she said the groups were too large, especially in the case of those children who knew very little English. So she taught three different OLP groups in each class. This teacher also found that her "slow" groups were progressing very slowly, so she decided to try getting help from children who already spoke English reasonably well. With one such child in each of the two "slow" groups, the children apparently learned better and faster.

Program revision. Some examples of program revisions made as a result of reports from the five teachers can be stated. All five teachers reported that

Lesson 10 (a "Criterion Lesson") was difficult for both teacher and children to follow. This was obvious also from the tapes of Lesson 10 that had been sent in. As a result, Lesson 10 was entirely rewritten. Two of the five teachers pointed out that although Criterion Lessons are supposed to be review and therefore should not introduce new materials, new vocabulary words are introduced in several. This was changed so that vocabulary now is introduced only during regular lessons.

Two of the teachers sometimes had difficulty reading the blue lesson pages – the paper was too dark. Therefore Mark III has been printed on lighter paper. Several lessons included inappropriate practice words in the Pronunciation Activities – these were noted by the teachers and now have been changed.

A major area of concern was the on-line assessment system. For Mark II, this consisted of Progress Reports accompanying the Criterion Lessons. Each Progress Report contained a listing of the objectives covered in that Criterion Lesson, and the teachers were to indicate by name all pupils who had or had not reached the objectives. Those children who had not reached objectives were to be given review activities which were also printed on the Progress Report. Since all Mark II teachers were provided with Progress Reports, an evaluation of their use was done through questionnaires filled out by all Mark II teachers. Most of the teachers felt that the Progress Reports were too cumbersome and took too long to fill out. Generally, they stated that they would prefer Content Tests. Most did not in fact fill out Progress Reports except for the two that SWCEL asked for specifically. Teachers were simply not using this assessment system. However, the five formative classroom teachers did fill out Progress Reports. They were asked to do so, since with each taped Criterion Lesson, they were to send in the accompanying Progress Report. The four teachers who continued with the lessons found the Progress Reports useful. Three of the teachers came to rely on them entirely for assessing children's progress and for determining which children should be recycled. However, they indicated that it was not possible to fill out the reports accurately unless they listened to the tapes. Although they could and did fill out reports before listening to the tape, they relied on the tape as a final check. The section of each report that deals with specific errors that children make was almost entirely completed from the tape. These teachers were in favor of the reports. They did point out that it took a lot of extra time to record and listen to the tapes. Thus, on the basis of this information, it was decided that Progess Reports are too cumbersome for most teachers, and do not get used if simply enclosed as part of the lesson plans. Therefore, the use of Progress Reports has been discontinued in Mark III.

The Arizona teacher, with the assistance of her aide, and before receiving Michael Test scores for her children, divided them into four different categories: 1) does not need OLP, 2) speaks English, 3) speaks a little English, 4) does not speak any English. (Note that there was no item in the teacher's training that covered judging children's English ability.) The agreement between her judgment and Michael Test scores was 80%. Within the three "needs OLP" categories there was only one "major" misjudgment – a girl who scored 143 on the Michael Test was judged to speak no English. Shortly afterwards the teacher discovered that the child simply had chosen not to speak anything but Spanish during the first few weeks of school. If we consider only two major categories: "Does not need OLP" and "Need OLP," the agreement was 87%. Three children who scored 130, 135 and 144 respectively were judged not to need OLP. Conversely, four children who scored 155, 156, 158 and 169 were judged to need OLP. (Scores less than 150 on the Michael Test indicate a need for OLP.) The teacher did not include the first three children in OLP even after further acquaintance with them and knowledge of their Michael Test scores. (The scores on the test are sometimes lower than a child's actual language ability, due to reluctance to speak in the novel test situation.) The high agreement between test scores and teacher judgments indicates that decisions about children's need for the OLP may not need to be tied to an elaborate testing procedure. In the present (1970-71) training program, an item that helps a teacher make decisions about a child's need for OLP has been included.

As described above, one of the Texas teachers had one OLP group with Black children and another with Mexican Americans. Pre test scores for the two groups were compared. The Mexican American children (N = 12) had a mean score of 137. The Black children (N = 9) had a mean score of 173. All except one of the Black children scored above 150. This means that they were not OLP candidates. However, they did speak a non-standard dialect of English. Even assuming that it is desirable to teach the standard dialect to such children in school (a controversial issue), OLP may not be suitable for such a purpose. An evaluation of OLP by The Center for Applied Linguistics indicates that very little of the OLP content is pertinent to differences between Black dialects and standard English.[2] A brief analysis of tapes from this classroom shows that the Black children continued using dialect utterances throughout the year even during OLP lessons despite the teacher's attempts to "correct" their English. Some of the children learned to pronounce some sounds according to the standard – for instance, while at first they said "dis" and "dat," they did learn to say "this" and "that," at least during lessons. However, grammar remained mostly the same from the beginning of the year to the end. For instance, the children said "I wants," "I does," "I has," "you wants" all through the program. They also used sentences without forms of the verb "to be," despite its frequent occurrence in "standard" sentence patterns in the OLP lessons. They said "He by the door," "That Mary," "Who in there."

These grammatical patterns are correct in the dialect that the Black children have learned at home. Attempts at producing what the teacher wanted sometimes resulted in an utterance containing both non-standard and standard patterns, thus: "Yes, youse is, you're walking." The evidence from this classroom helped to confirm what the program developers had anticipated – namely, that the Oral Language Program should not be used as a Standard English program for children who speak a non-standard dialect (See page 37).

One aspect of the OLP has thus far eluded designs for evaluation, namely the pronunciation activities. The inclusion of specific exercises in English phonology had its own rationale (see page 45), but effects of these pronunciation exercises on the children have not been assessed in any way. The only information available about the possible value of this part of OLP is informal comments by the formative classroom teachers. The two Texas teachers both stressed that the pronunciation activities in OLP carried over into phonics. One said that the children remember sounds from OLP when they get to them in reading. Other OLP teachers in her school had commented on this, and all found the pronunciation exercises very good. The children also seemed to enjoy making the gestures that go along with pronunciation. The other teacher mentioned that her children "practice" pronunciation outside OLP lessons – specifically the stress exercises and singular-plural ones. No unfavorable reports about pronunciation exercises have been received. Thus, the current evaluation of these exercises is that they do not harm children and are possibly beneficial. Therefore they remain a part of OLP lessons.

Other Evaluation

Evaluations of teacher behavior were conducted by New Mexico State University during and after its pre service trial in the 1970 spring semester. A dissertation study by David Kniefel[3] compared behavior profiles of pre service OLP teachers with non-OLP trained teachers. While no statistically significant differences between the behavior profiles of the OLP trained and the non-OLP trained teachers were found for the general teaching situation, the data did reflect more approving head nodding and touching behaviors by the OLP trained teachers.

In another study by Wayne Neuberger and Timothy Pettibone[4] the OLP trained teachers were found to elicit more relevant (not disruptive) behaviors from Mexican American first graders than did pre service teachers trained to handle corrective reading programs.

Summary and Implications

The 1969-70 Field Trial results indicate that the Oral Language Program is successful with Spanish speaking and Indian children who enter school with inadequate knowledge of English. Teachers in general like the program, the materials, and the training they receive. There is some evidence that children who do not receive the program do not learn to speak English nearly as well. There are, however, many indications that more information is needed, especially in the area of teaching and assessment strategies.

The implications of these findings are that diffusion of the Oral Language Program at this time is justified and should be encouraged. In view of the large population in the Southwest that qualifies for such a program, everything possible should be done to facilitate the installation of the OLP in every district where it is needed.

Footnotes

1. Lois Michael, *Manual and Test Items for a Test of Oral English Production, Level Ia* (San Diego, California: National School District and Department of Education, 1968) p. 1.

2. Shuy, et. al.

3. David R. Kniefel, *A Comparison of Observed Teacher Behavior of Oral Language Program Trained and Conventionally Trained Preservice Reading Teachers,* doctoral dissertation (Las Cruces: New Mexico State University, 1970.).

4. Wayne F. Neuburger and Timothy J. Pettibone, "Disruptive Behavior in the Bilingual Child as a Function of Teacher Training", *APA Experimental Publication System,* February, 1971.

Appendices

A. H200 Lesson
B. Mark I Lesson
C. Illustrations in Mark II
D. Mark III Lesson
E. Sample Activity

A. H200 Lesson

Introduction:

This is your pupils' first structured lesson in English as a second language. Before you teach it you may wish to spend a meeting or two getting acquainted with the children and putting them at ease. Some use of their native language is recommended. If you do not know that language, a recording of a story or a song may be used.

The children will have greater initial success if you assume that they know no English. The lesson has definite linguistic objectives and includes a test to help you know if the objectives have been reached.

I. OBJECTIVES

A. Content

1. The learner will be able to ask the question:

   What's your name?

2. In response to the above question, the learner will be able to say:

   Joe. What's yours?

3. In response to "What's yours?" the learner will give his name, e.g., "Tom."

4. New vocabulary:

   a. The name of every pupil in the class
   b. The teacher's name

Lesson 1

Teaching Points

a. The process of substitution.

b. Abbreviated sentences as a convention of dialog, as in the use of "What's yours?" in the dialog taught in this lesson.

c. Association of stronger stress and longer length with high pitch, e.g.,

   What's your na--me?

   What's you--r name?

d. The placing of a "highest" pitch in a sentence.

e. English pronunciation of the learner's name, e.g., [raymon] for "Ramon." If you can say "Good morning" in the learner's language, do so, adding his name in the way it is pronounced in his language. For example, in Spanish, "Buenos dias, Ramon" ("Ramon" pronounced [ramon]). This would indicate to the learner that his name is pronounced differently depending on the language being used.

Lesson 1

5. The learner will be able to use high pitch in normal and contrastive position, e.g.,

   What's your name? (Normal)

   What's your name? (Contrastive in a series)

B. Test: See page 6.

II. MATERIALS

A. Two hand puppets: one of a boy, the other of a girl.

B. Song: "Tell Me Your Name, Please," Birchard Music Series - Kindergarten (California State Series), p. 16.

III. PROCEDURES

A. Presentation

1. Introduce the puppets in a manner resembling the following:

   GIRLS AND BOYS, THIS IS JANE.
   Look at the girl puppet.

   AND THIS IS JOE.
   Look at the boy puppet.

2. Model the dialog below three times, indicating what each puppet is saying by the nearness of the "talking" puppet to your face. Use the hand gestures you plan to teach to indicate "Listen only."

f. If you have more than eight pupils, you may have to divide the class into several groups and ask each child to learn only the names of those in his group. Change the groups in the next few lessons until every child has learned the name of every other child in the class.

Name the puppets after a boy and a girl in your class. The names used in these lessons are intended to refer to the actual names of your pupils, so substitute your pupils' names for "Joe," "Jane," "Tom," etc. Since your pupils will probably not understand your verbal message, use whatever gestures are necessary to help them understand that you are naming the puppets, saying "Jane" as you shake the girl puppet, "Joe" as you shake the boy puppet.

Lesson 1

Jane: HI! WHAT'S YOUR NAME?

Joe: JOE. WHAT'S YOURS?

Jane: JANE.

3. Echo: ○ (3), ⊙. Use the hand gestures you plan to teach (to indicate "Repeat after me") in lesson 3 (step 2). Hold up only the girl puppet.

WHAT'S YOUR NAME?

WHAT'S YOUR NAME?

4. Echo: ⊘ (3), ⊙. Use the same hand gestures as in step 3. It is important to be consistent. Hold up only the boy puppet.

WHAT'S YOURS?

WHAT'S YOURS?

5. Have the class echo the dialog in step 2 after you, a line at a time: first the entire class (○), then the two halves of the class (◐, ◑), each taking the role of the one of the two puppets, finally the two halves of the class again with roles reversed.

If the children have trouble imitating the rhythm of this question, see the section on Rhythm and Intonation in the Teacher's Guide, page

All the pupils are to echo three times as a group (○) before they are asked to echo individually (⊙). Call on as many individual children as time permits.

Wha-t's your na--me?
The single dash indicates a vowel which you normally take long to say in terms of relative time; two dashes indicates you normally take even longer to pronounce the vowel. But your pupils are not likely to lengthen these vowels the way you do. You should not exaggerate the length of these vowels; your normal, natural way of saying, "What's your name?" automatically and most accurately produces the length of the vowels indicated.

◐ indicates the half of the class to your left; ◑, the half to your right.

Lesson 1

6. Give the puppets to the two children you have named the puppets after, and have the two children repeat the dialog.	You may have to help the two children by whispering their lines to them.
7. Free Dialog: Have Joe come up to you. Initiate the dialog: WHAT'S YOUR NAME? Joe: JOE. WHAT'S YOURS?	Prompt the response by whispering it in his ear if necessary.
MRS. MISS MR. ________.	The entries in the box indicate alternative responses; in this case, depending on which applies to you: "Mrs.", "Miss", or "Mr."
8. Free Dialog: Help Joe initiate the dialog with another pupil. Continue with other pairs of pupils.	It might help to draw two circles on the floor with chalk. Have the pairs of reciting children stand in these two circles.
Joe: WHAT'S YOUR NAME? 2nd L: TOM. WHAT'S YOURS? Joe: JOE.	"2nd L" means "second learner."
9. Free dialog: Approach each pupil separately and initiate the dialog. After you have completed the dialog with the first pupil, proceed to the others, emphasizing "your" in "What's your name?"	
WHAT'S YOUR NAME? 1st L: JOE. WHAT'S YOURS?	Joe is the first learner to participate in this activity.
MRS. MISS MR. ________.	

WHAT'S YOUR NAME?

MRS.
MISS ________.
MR.

2nd L: JANE. WHAT'S YOURS?

WHAT'S YOUR NAME?

MRS.
MISS ________.
MR.

3rd L: TOM. WHAT'S YOURS?

B. Pronunciation

1. Continue the exercise above but have one of the pupils initiate the dialog. Repeat until every child has had a chance to play a role.

2. Recite, and then sing, the following song for your class. Sing it a second time and have the children join in on "My name is ________," each putting in his own name. Let them join in on any other line they please.

OH, TELL ME YOUR NAME, PLEASE,
OH, TELL ME YOUR NAME, PLEASE,
OH, TELL ME YOUR NAME, PLEASE,
HEIGH-HO, HEIGH-HO, HEIGH-HO!

MY NAME IS ________________,
MY NAME IS ________________,
MY NAME IS ________________,
HEIGH-HO, HEIGH-HO, HEIGH-HO!

3. Have children recite each of the lines after you in groups and individually. Allow time for the test.

Jane is the second learner to participate in this activity.

Correct responses which make the error of emphasizing name in this situation.

The song is from: Birchard Music Series - Kindergarten (California State Series), p. 16.

You might have a group of three children recite the lines after you as a group till they come to the lines, "My name is _____," where each child recites individually, coming together again on the last line.

Test:

1. Have pairs of pupils come up to the front of the classroom and go through the following dialog. You may have to model the dialog at first to demonstrate the activity.

   1st L: WHAT'S YOUR NAME?

   2nd L: JOE. WHAT'S YOURS?

   1st L: JANE.

2. Seat the children in a circle with you. Take the role of the 1st L above and go through the dialog with each child. Then have some child take the role of the 1st L. Repeat till all the children have had a turn at the role of the 1st L. Don't insist that the reluctant ones participate.

   For this and all other tests, pupils should be called upon to participate as individuals, singly, or in pairs. Do not have groups act as one, for example, do not have half the class say together, "What's your name?"

Likely Errors

a. Instead of deleting, some pupils might give complete sentences, such as, "My name is Jane." This is not an error and should not be corrected, but do not encourage it by giving overt approval. Frequent use of answers in complete sentences results in unnatural English.

b. A very short vowel where a long one is expected, e.g., "What's yours?" rendered as:

   "What's you--rs?"

c. For test 2, 1st L. should emphasize "your" when he moves to the second, third, and other members of the circle. Some of the learners might merely and incorrectly overemphasize the word "name," thus:

   *What's your na--me? instead of:

   What's you--r name?

B. Mark I Lesson

LESSON 3

OBJECTIVES

Saying

I want a book.
some chalk

Pronouncing

The "o" sound in "do"

Materials

Three (3) of each:	books pencils
Six (6) of each:	pieces of chalk pieces of paper

PRESENTATION

Review

FIRST ACTIVITY

1. Give each pupil one of the following items: a book, a pencil, some paper or some chalk.
2. Say to a pupil:

   I WANT SOME PAPER.
   A BOOK

3. The pupil responds by giving you the item that you requested.
4. After the object has been given to you, say to the same pupil:

   THANK YOU.

5. Repeat this procedure until you have collected all of the objects.

Pronunciation

SECOND ACTIVITY

6. Model:

   WANT

7. Round your lips for the "W" sound as though you were blowing out a candle.

PRESENTATION (continued)

8. Now model the following words. Keep your lips rounded for the "W" sound at the end.
   YOU
   DO
   TOO
9. Model these words and keep your lips rounded. Hold the "OOO" sound with rounding.
   YOUUUUUUUUUUUUuuuuuu...
   DOOOOOOOOOOOOOoooooo...
   TOOOOOOOOOOOOOoooooo...
10. Have the pupils echo the model in a group. If a pupil fails to round his lips, tap his cheeks gently.

New Lesson Material

THIRD ACTIVITY

11. Model and have the pupils echo:
    I WANT A BOOK.
12. Repeat Step 11 once.

PRESENTATION (continued)

13. Repeat Steps 11 and 12 with:
    I WANT A PENCIL.
    I WANT SOME PAPER.
    I WANT SOME CHALK.

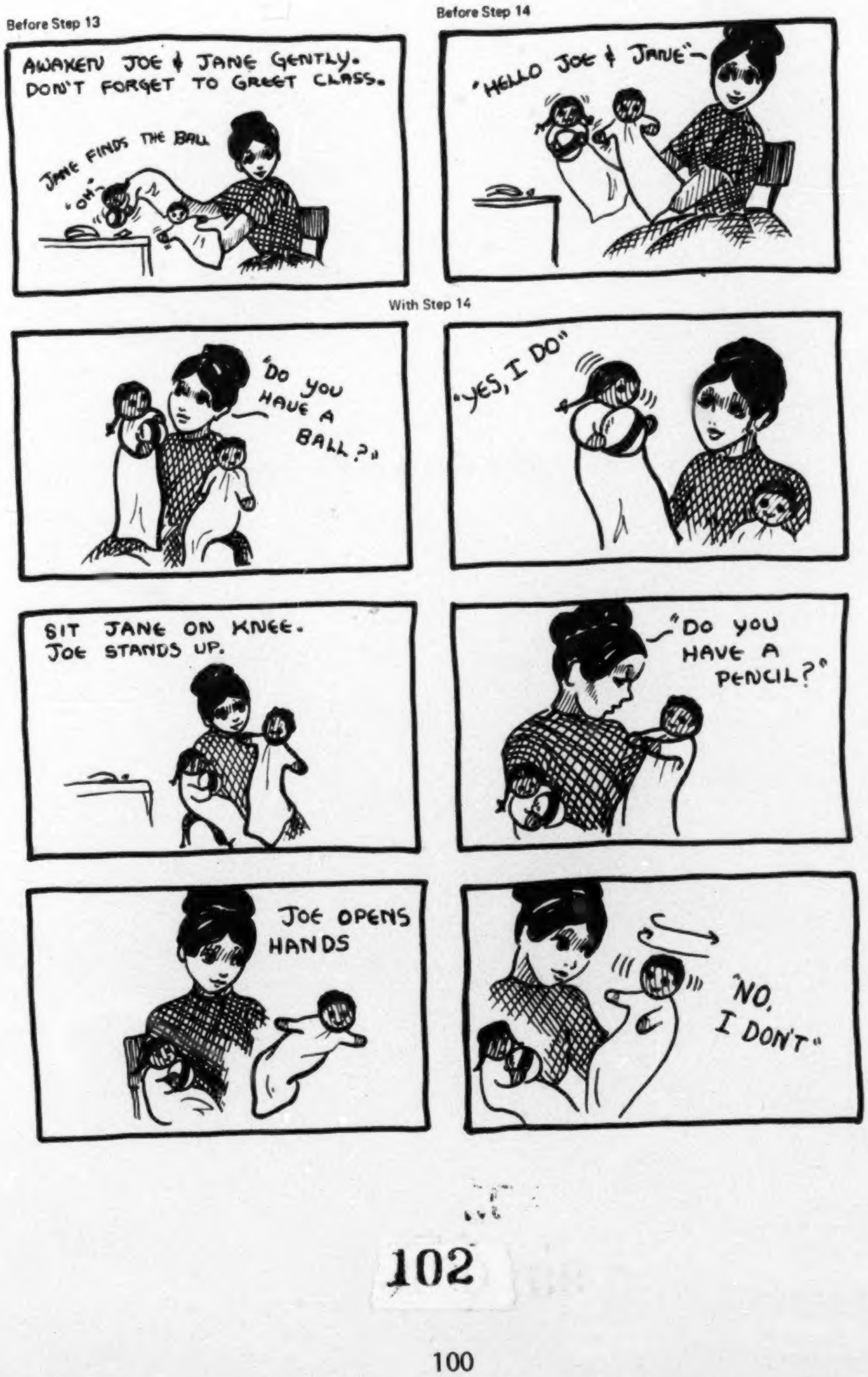
FOURTH ACTIVITY

14. Put the following items on your desk: three books, three pencils, six pieces of paper, and six pieces of chalk.
15. Hold up a book.
16. Prompt a pupil by whispering or modeling to say:
    I WANT A BOOK.
17. Repeat Steps 15 and 16 with each pupil using different objects.
18. Be sure that your cues (the objects that you hold up) require the random use of "A" and "SOME."

FIFTH ACTIVITY

19. Let a pupil take your place holding up objects as cues for responses.
20. Prompt other pupils to say:
    I WANT A BOOK.
21. Repeat Steps 19 and 20 with four more pupils.

C. Illustrations in Mark II


Before Step 13
AWAKEN JOE & JANE GENTLY. DON'T FORGET TO GREET CLASS.
JANE FINDS THE BALL
"OH"
Before Step 14
"HELLO JOE & JANE"
With Step 14
"DO YOU HAVE A BALL?"
"YES, I DO"
SIT JANE ON KNEE. JOE STANDS UP.
"DO YOU HAVE A PENCIL?"
JOE OPENS HANDS
"NO, I DON'T"

D. Mark III Lesson

LESSON 8

OBJECTIVES

Asking	**Answering**
Do you have a *pencil*?	Yes, I do. No, I don't.

Pronouncing
Producing long and short vowels conditioned by voicing of final consonant: "Tom" and "top."

Materials

Two (2):	puppets
Three (3) of each:	apples balls bananas books erasers oranges pencils
One (1) for each pupil and yourself:	paper sacks

PRESENTATION

Review

FIRST ACTIVITY

1. Give each child a paper sack containing one of the following items: an apple, an orange, a ball, a banana or an eraser.

2. Initiate a chain dialogue:
   I HAVE *A BALL*. WHAT DO YOU HAVE?
   I HAVE AN *ERASER*.
   WHAT DO YOU HAVE?

3. Collect the sacks.

Pronunciation

(Objective: producing long and short vowels conditioned by voicing of final consonant; the "o" sound in "Tom" and "top")

SECOND ACTIVITY

4. Model the following sets. Hold out your arms to indicate the longer vowels in the words ending with m.
   calm : cop (**calm rhymes with mom**)
   top : tom
   mop : mom
   balm : bop (**balm rhymes with mom**)
   palm : pop (**palm** rhymes **with mom**)

5. Repeat Step 4. Have the children echo the sound and imitate your action.

6. Model the following words. Hold out your arms to indicate the longer vowels in the words ending with m.
   cop : calm
   tom : top
   mom : mop
   bop : balm
   pop : palm

7. Repeat each set in Step 6 individually. Delay holding out your arms to see if the children will do it without waiting for your model. Have the children echo your model.
   cop : calm, etc.

8. If the children are having difficulty repeat Steps 4 and 5.

New Lesson Material

THIRD ACTIVITY

9. Model and have the pupils echo:
   DO YOU HAVE A *BALL*?

10. Repeat Step 9.

11. Have several individuals say:
    DO YOU HAVE A *BALL*?

FOURTH ACTIVITY

12. Have a ball, an eraser and a banana on your desk.

(please turn page)

13. Put on Puppet Jane and Puppet Joe.
Puppet Jane holds the ball.

14. Model the following dialogue with the puppets:
(Note: The puppets should approach you together from one side.)
You:
DO YOU HAVE A BALL?
Puppet Jane:
YES, I DO (Nodding her head affirmatively)
You:
DO YOU HAVE A PENCIL?
Puppet Joe:
NO, I DON'T. (Shaking his head negatively)

15. Have the puppets walk off together.

16. Have Puppet Jane come back and give her the eraser.

17. Repeat Steps 14 and 15, but this time ask Puppet Jane:
DO YOU HAVE AN ERASER?

FIFTH ACTIVITY

18. Give the puppets to two pupils. Give the banana to the pupil who is holding Puppet Jane.

19. Repeat the dialogue having the pupils answer for the puppets.

20. Collect the puppets and the banana.

21. Give one-half of the pupils a known object, such as an apple, an orange, a banana, a ball, a book, etc.

22. Ask each pupil:
DO YOU HAVE AN *APPLE*?

23. Pupil answers:
YES, I DO.
or
NO, I DON'T.

24. Make sure that some of the pupils answer with the negative.

SIXTH ACTIVITY

25. Have the pupils who are holding an object give the object to a pupil who is not holding one.

26. Have a pupil take your place asking the question:
DO YOU HAVE A *BALL*?

27. Repeat Step 26 with two or three more pupils.

SEVENTH ACTIVITY

28. Initiate a chain dialogue:
DO YOU HAVE AN *ERASER*?
Pupil:
YES, I DO. DO YOU HAVE A *BALL*?
or
NO, I DON'T.

29. Collect the items.

E. Sample Activity

106

REALIA

Obtaining Materials

Script for Faculty Member

In this exercise, you are to make certain decisions about obtaining materials that are specified in Oral Language Program Lessons but are not part of your supplies. You are given four separate examples. For each example, some information is given about how that item is used in the lessons. For each, there is also a list of optional ways of supplying it. You are to decide which *four options* are *acceptable*. In some instances you may know that the options are not feasible in your case – this does not matter for the purposes of the exercise. The *acceptability* of the option is what counts.

Please turn to the section marked REALIA: *Obtaining Materials* in your notebooks. You should have Instructions, a Worksheet and a sealed Answer Sheet. You will work with a partner. When you have finished filling out the worksheet, exchange it with your partner, open the answer sheet and check the choices your partner has made. Enter the total correct, and give the worksheet back. We will discuss any items you may wish to discuss. Hand in the worksheets at the end of the activity.

REALIA

Obtaining Materials

Instructions for Teachers

On the worksheet you will find four different objects that are required for Oral Language Program Lessons but are not part of the supplies you receive. For each object, there are a number of options mentioned for obtaining it. In each case, write the numbers of four *acceptable* options in the spaces provided. You are given information about how the objects are used in the lessons; this should help you in making your decisions. Although some of the options may not be *feasible* in your particular situation (in your actual classroom), for the purposes of this exercise please consider only the *acceptability* of the options.

Complete the exercise and exchange papers with a partner. Open the answer sheet and check off your partner's answers against it. For the wrong answers, put an "x" under the number. Then enter the total *correct* at the bottom of the page. Hand the worksheet back to your partner. At the end of the activity, give the worksheet to the instructor.

REALIA

Obtaining Materials

Worksheet for Teachers

I. You need two glasses in the lessons. There is no need to use these for actual liquids. They are used 1) to introduce the word "glass" as new vocabulary and 2) to illustrate the sentences "I have one glass" and "I have two glasses." Choose four *acceptable* options from among the following:

1. Borrow two glasses from the cafeteria.
2. Draw two glasses on the board.
3. Bring two glasses from home.
4. Use pictures from magazines.
5. Use paper cups.
6. Use two tin cans.
7. Buy two plastic glasses.

Answer:___, ___, ___, and___.

II. You will need cheese to put on crackers for some lessons. Each child gets to handle the cheese and crackers in most of these lessons. Choose four *acceptable* options from among the following:

1. Ask the cafeteria to supply the cheese.
2. Use felt cut-outs.
3. Buy cheese and bring it.
4. Show a film of a cheese factory.
5. Draw a picture of cheese on the board.
6. Use construction paper cut-outs.
7. Use the drawing of cheese that comes with your supplies.
8. Use a picture of cheese from a magazine ad.

Answer:___, ___, ___, and___.

III. A drum will be needed for a few lessons. The drum is used in these lessons to introduce new vocabulary and to make sounds along with several other sound-making objects. Choose four *acceptable* options from among the following:

1. Make your own drum from an oatmeal box.
2. Use a tin can.
3. Draw a drum on the board.
4. Use a picture from a magazine.

5. Buy one from the store.
6. Have the children draw drums.
7. Have a parent make a drum for the class.
8. Show a film of a jazz group.

Answer: ___, ___, ___, and ___.

IV. You will need a vase to hold some plastic flowers for Lesson 98 and in some lessons thereafter. "Vase" is a new vocabulary word, too. Choose four *acceptable* options from among the following:

1. Make one from construction paper.
2. Buy one from a store.
3. Draw one on the board.
4. Use a can or a bottle.
5. Use a picture from a magazine.
6. Bring one of your own from home.
7. Have a pupil bring a vase.

Answer: ___, ___, ___, and ___.

TOTAL CORRECT

PLEASE HAND IN THIS PAGE AT THE END OF THE ACTIVITY.

REALIA

Obtaining Materials

Answer Sheet

I. 1, 3, 4, and 7.

II. 1, 2, 3, and 6.

III. 1, 2, 5, and 7.

IV. 1, 2, 6, and 7.